February 1952

50 cents per copy
$4.00 per year

EDUCATION

VOLUME 72 — No. 6

GEOGRAPHY NUMBER

Haushofer and German Geopolitics
Geographic Aspects of Russian Expansion
Geopolitical Changes in Eastern Europe
Communications in the Balkans
Blueprint for the New Japan
Economic Status of Palestine
Conservation, An International Problem
Minerals and National Power
Stable versus Unstable Geography
The Newer View of Geography
Geography in Norwegian Schools

A MAGAZINE DEVOTED *to the* SCIENCE, ART, PHILOSOPHY *and* LITERATURE *of* EDUCATION

EDUCATION

RAYMOND P. PALMER, *Managing Editor*
WILLIAM P. SEARS, JR., *Book Review Editor*
ASSOCIATE EDITORS FOR VOLUME 72, 1951-1952

SEPTEMBER . . . . . *MUSIC EDUCATION*
Editor, LLOYD F. SUNDERMAN, University of Toledo

OCTOBER . . . . . *EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS*
Editor, THOMAS W. BIRS, Whitworth College, Spokane, Washington

NOVEMBER . . . . . *SEX EDUCATION*
Editor, HERBERT D. LAMSON, Boston University

DECEMBER . . . . . *CHILD DEVELOPMENT*
Editor, SISTER MARY AMATORA, St. Francis College, Ft. Wayne, Indiana

JANUARY . . . . . *TEACHER TRAINING*
Editor, CHARLES D. NEAL, Southern Illinois University

FEBRUARY . . . . . *GEOGRAPHY*
Editor, OTIS W. FREEMAN, Eastern Washington College of Education

MARCH . . . . . *COMMUNICATIONS*
Editor, HERBERT HACKETT, Michigan State College

APRIL . . . . . *LABOR-MANAGEMENT RELATIONS*
Editor, DAVID E. WEINGART, East Side High School, Newark, New Jersey

MAY . . . . . *READING*
Editor, EMMETT A. BETTS, Director of the Reading Clinic, Temple University

JUNE . . . . . *MODERN LANGUAGES*
Editor, STEPHEN A. FREEMAN, Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont

More and More Schools are Using

EATON-PALMER WORKBOOKS IN LITERATURE

For

MACBETH
JULIUS CAESAR
THE MERCHANT OF VENICE
TREASURE ISLAND
IDYLLS OF THE KING
THE LADY OF THE LAKE
SILAS MARNER
IVANHOE
A TALE OF TWO CITIES

Only 20 cents each

Now ready by the same author, HAROLD T. EATON

EATON-PALMER WORKBOOK IN BASIC SPELLING

This workbook for junior high school pupils is designed to eliminate spelling errors in the basic list of 500 most frequently used words. It provides forty lessons, one a week for forty weeks, or a concentrated eight-week unit of daily lessons. *List price, 40 cents*

Sample copies of the above will be sent to interested teachers and officials on request.

THE PALMER COMPANY
370 ATLANTIC AVENUE BOSTON 10, MASS.

EDUCATION

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

DEVOTED TO THE SCIENCE, ART, PHILOSOPHY AND LITERATURE OF EDUCATION

VOL. 72 FEBRUARY, 1952 No. 6

GEOGRAPHY NUMBER

OTIS W. FREEMAN, *Editor*

President, Eastern Washington College of Education

Contents

		PAGE
Haushofer and German Geopolitics	*Felix Wassermann*	360
Geographic Aspects of Russian Expansion	*Sigismond de R. Diettrich*	371
Geopolitical Changes in Eastern Europe	*Huey Louis Kostanick*	381
Communications in the Balkans	*George Kish*	388
Blueprint for the New Japan	*Howard H. Martin*	394
Economic Status of Palestine	*George D. Hubbard*	405
Conservation, An International Problem	*Stephen S. Visher and Halene Hatcher Visher*	417
Minerals and National Power	*Otis W. Freeman*	423
Stable versus Unstable Geography	*Hallock F. Raup*	427
The Newer View of Geography	*John E. Owen*	431
Geography in Norwegian Schools	*Gilbert Geis*	434
Book Reviews		440

Published monthly except July and August.

Subscription price $4.00 per year; 40 cents per copy

Entered as second class matter at the Post Office, Boston, Mass., under the Act of March 3, 1879

THE PALMER COMPANY, Publishers

370 Atlantic Avenue Boston 10, Massachusetts

TEACHING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

By MARIE A. MEHL, *Assistant Professor of Education;* HUBERT H. MILLS, *Professor of Education and Director of Student Teaching; and* HARL R. DOUGLASS, *Director of the College of Education, all of the University of Colorado.* A VOLUME in the popular and widely used Douglass Series in Education. An enlightening treatment of the fundamental theory and practice of teaching in American elementary schools. The importance of the all-round growth of the child is the principal theme of this textbook designed for students training in elementary education and in-service teachers who wish to remain abreast of modern trends in this field. 541 pages.

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

By VERNON E. ANDERSON, *Director of Curriculum Center, University of Connecticut;* PAUL R. GRIM, *Director of Laboratory Experiences, University of Minnesota; and* WILLIAM T. GRUHN, *Director of Pre-Service Teacher Education, University of Connecticut.* A NEW TEXTBOOK for pre-service education students and beginning teachers. It probes the essentials of the role of the secondary school in the democratic community and discusses the principles of adolescent growth and development, of learning, and of the democratic way of life. 540 pages.

THE TEACHING OF HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH

By J. N. HOOK, *Counselor in the Teaching of English and Assistant Professor of English, University of Illinois.* A TEXTBOOK for use in college courses and a reference book for thousands who teach English in grades seven to twelve. *". . . this book offers a brilliant design of compelling reading and practical assistance for teachers of English . . . one cannot mention this book without commenting on its style. The sentences are not only clear and forceful, they are also exciting and amusing. The author has a hard head and a warm understanding of the problems teachers find on Monday morning."* — Walter Loban in the ENGLISH JOURNAL. 466 pages.

TEACHING CHILDREN TO READ

By FAY ADAMS, *Professor of Education, University of Southern California;* LILLIAN GRAY, *Associate Professor of Education, San Jose State College; and* DORA REESE, *Eastern Montana College of Education.* HERE IS A LUCID, direct, everyday help in the all-important task of teaching children to read, which offers techniques tested in the classroom itself. *"Because of the simplicity and clarity of its discussions, this volume is admirably adapted for use in pre-service courses in reading. The authors are to be commended on both the breadth of their presentation and its eminently practical value."* — William S. Gray in THE EDUCATIONAL FORUM. 525 pages.

EDUCATION FOR LIFE ADJUSTMENT

ITS MEANING AND IMPLEMENTATION

Edited by HARL R. DOUGLASS, *Director of the College of Education, University of Colorado.* AN INVALUABLE symposium by twenty-one leading educators who set forth the philosophy of Education for Life Adjustment in terms of its theory and practice, and its relationship to traditional educational custom. It explains what can be done in the various subject fields in the secondary school program to develop facilities for more effective experiences—the kind that help students adjust to the requirements of their day and their environment. Answers many questions on the future of educational practice in American secondary schools. 491 pages.

THE RONALD PRESS COMPANY
15 East 26th Street, New York 10

EDUCATION

Vol. 72 FEBRUARY 1952 No. 6

FOREWORD

By OTIS W. FREEMAN
Geography Editor

THIS number of EDUCATION is devoted to geography, with chief attention to its political phases.

One of the leading exponents of geopolitics was Karl Haushofer whose life work, theories and tragic end are described by Dr. F. M. Wassermann, a college professor and geographer, who was educated in Germany and who has taught in the United States for over twenty years. This paper is followed by contributions about Russia, the Balkan Peninsula and geopolitical changes in eastern Europe. An article on the New Japan is by Dr. Howard H. Martin, a specialist on that country, and that on Palestine is by Dr. George D. Hubbard, author of a college textbook on Europe. Conservation as an international problem is discussed by Dr. and Mrs. Visher. Their joint paper is followed by a discussion of minerals and national power.

The final three papers are on varied topics: a new view of geography, stable and unstable geography and geography in the schools of Norway.

It is of interest that three authors, George Kish, John E. Owen, and Gilbert Geis, are now in Europe on Fulbright grants for research. Dr. Kish is in Italy, Professor Owen is in Finland and Mr. Geis is in Norway. Three authors, Dr. Wassermann, Dr. Kostanick and Professor de R. Dietrich, were born and educated in Europe.

Haushofer *and* German Geopolitics: *A* Tragic Experiment *in* Power Politics *and* Education

By FELIX MARTIN WASSERMANN
Kansas Wesleyan University

ON March 10, 1946, one of the most interesting European contemporaries died by his own hand, little noticed in this year of an apparent return to peace and normalcy, although during the war his name had frequently occurred in American books and articles: Karl Haushofer, ex-general and university professor, the organizer of that German brand of political geography, geopolitics. He died as a belated victim of the fall of his country to whose power and greatness his life work as a soldier, scholar, and teacher had been dedicated. Not all of those who have written about him have been able to size up his stature. He has been regarded by some as the propagandist of a pseudo-science, and by others as the evil genius behind the Hitlerian program of world conquest. Enough time has now passed to give an objective picture of this man and his ideas, which embody some of the most striking aspects of the German character.

His social and cultural background naturally left its impact on his career. As a Bavarian, he came from an area where peasant ruggedness blended with the age-old traditions of Humanism and Catholicism. He was born into a family of scholars and artists. His father was a professor of economics at the Institute of Technology at Munich. Among his colleagues was the head of the German political geographers, Ratzel, an early influence upon young Karl. His schooling took the usual course of the German upper class. He attended the Humanistic Gymnasium, then as now the best school for training in the Humanities. A deeply grounded understanding of the Greek and Roman classics became an essential trait of his personality for all of his life. An academic career seemed his natural vocation; but his year of military service was so much of a success that he decided to become a professional soldier rather than a professor. Due to his combination of military and educational abilities he soon became an instructor at the Bavarian War Academy and a member of the General Staff. His outstanding record was responsible for his choice as an observer with the Japanese army in 1908.

Japan had recently defeated one of Europe's major powers. Haushofer was among the first to see the potentialities of the rising empire. His genuine interest in the customs and traditions of the country and his linguistic talents, which enabled him to converse with his hosts in their own language, brought him in close contact with the military, political, and cultural leaders of Japan. At a time when it was common in Europe to look

down on the Japanese as a people of an inferior race, Haushofer tried to impress upon the German government the usefulness of an alliance with Japan. A few years later, Germany had to pay with the loss of her Pacific outposts for not heeding his advice. Even so, the necessity for cooperation between the two countries remained a major theme in Haushofer's thought and writing, which laid the foundations for the subsequent Berlin-Tokyo axis. A series of books on Japan revealed him as one of the foremost European specialists in this field. He made use of his stay in Japan to get a first-hand knowledge also of her continental neighbors, Korea, Manchuria, and China. On his way to Japan he had visited South Asia and travelled along the life-line of the British Empire. The impression he got of Britain's power and ability to rule became an important factor in his own concept of global power policy. During his extensive stay in India he visited Lord Kitchener in Calcutta, and even in later years he liked to refer to his talks with this living embodiment of British imperialism. The great soldier discussed with the young German officer the issues of empire and of world politics as well as the impending tragedy of war between England and Germany, with its catastrophic consequences for the rule of the West in the world. The return to Germany took Haushofer through Siberia and Moscow. Thus he saw also the counterpart to the oceanic empire, the core of the Eurasian continent, the *Heartland* which the British geographer Mackinder had presented as the key to world empire.

After his return, illness compelled him to shift from military to scholarly activities. He took his Ph.D. in Geography and published his first book on Japan. In 1914, the war called him back to the army. As a colonel and brigadier general he got additional experience in the geographic conditions of warfare. His keen mind saw the blunders of the military and political leadership—many of them a consequence of misjudging foreign countries and peoples—which brought about Germany's fall.

The defeat put an end to his military career. The general became a lecturer in political geography at the University of Munich. At the same time he started his activities as a writer on his subject. It was natural that he had no great love for the Weimar republic and its bungling politicians. The crisis of the defeat and the ensuing anarchy and weakness made him, like so many political thinkers before him, reflect on the conditions of the rise and fall of nations. As a geographer, his main concern was with the geographic factor, especially the issues connected with Germany's location in the center of Europe, with her dense population in a comparatively small area even more restricted by the Versailles treaty. It was not the governments alone which he blamed. The entire German people, in spite of the emphasis on geography in school, seemed to him to lack interest in, and feeling for, the geographic forces which determined Germany's position, and which, if understood and utilized, might restore her lost rank as a great power.

Thus, education of the Germans to a new geographic consciousness became his central purpose. He was gifted with great educational zeal, as all those know who met him in the classroom,

the lecture hall, and most of all in private conversation when he was able to give full rein to his vast knowledge of facts and ideas and to his personal dynamism in convincing his interlocutors of his points. A man of his type had little direct contact with the people, and his way of thinking and speaking was more in line with the academic mind than with the common man. But he hoped that his students and readers, and the younger generation of political and military leaders, might reorganize Germany policy in line with his concepts of the dynamism of space, and at the same time reeducate the geographic conscience of the nation.

Combining the abilities of a scholar and of an educator with those of a journalist, he produced an increasing number of articles, written in a vivid and dazzling style, full of facts and combinations, of analyses and suggestions, of historical references and of forecasts for the future. Later he also made use of the newest means of popularizing ideas, the radio; however, he often presupposed too much knowledge of geographic details and names to impress his concepts even upon a German radio audience. He was aware that the political geographers, competent as all German scholars, but aloof and academic, had failed to direct either the government or the people. Thus a new emphasis on the dynamic aspects of geography instead of the static face of traditional research appeared as a means for arousing the interest of a nation weighted down by the political and psychological consequences of defeat. *Political Geography* turned into *Geopolitics,* a striking new name which Haushofer took over from the Swedish political scientist Kjellen. He was broadminded enough to make use of good ideas though they came from foreign or even enemy sources; he liked to quote the Latin word: *It is right to learn from your enemies.* The name *Geopolitics* was to underline the turn to a new rôle of geography in advising the foreign policy and the political strategy of the nation.

Haushofer's roots in the humanized imperialism of the Bismarckian and Late-Victorian type underlie his concept, both expressed and implied, of Geopolitics as the will to power controlled by knowledge and moderation, and as the right of power to rule if, and only if, exercised by superior intelligence. This imperialist philosophy he shared with many political thinkers on both sides of the Atlantic. He constantly emphasized his indebtedness to the work of Anglo-Saxon scholars such as Mackinder, Mahan, Holdich, Curzon, Fairgrieve, Brooks Adams, and Bowman. However, it seems typically German that the *observation* of the paramount rôle of power in politics, already demonstrated by Thucydides in an unparalleled way, and accepted by innumerable political scientists, for Haushofer as for many of his fellow-Germans easily turned into a *philosophy of power.* Despite his keen and brilliant mind, his emotional romanticism, part of his German heritage, gave him a certain preference for the strong man and the strong state in history and politics. This attitude was also a reaction to the German situation in the first years of the Weimar republic, when the weakness of the defeated country stood in glaring contrast to what it had been before the war.

As was to be expected, Haushofer,

with his vast knowledge and experience, and with his ability to create new pictures and concepts out of apparently disconnected details, had all the gifts of an inspiring teacher. His audience felt the impact of a colorful and dynamic personality, of a gentleman and humanist, of a man with a mission. He impressed upon his students and readers the necessity of a global view as a counterweight to the narrow viewpoint of post-war Germany cut down in space, landlocked, and barred from the wide expanses of the outside world. Seeing Germany overpopulated and deprived of much of her territory, he gave expression to the kind of claustrophobia which pervaded the German mentality, and the concept of space, *Raum,* in all its many combinations, assumed in his words a magic dynamism as the master key to Germany's political, geographical, and social problems. On the other hand, it was a setback that his mind lacked the systematic temper of the trained scientist. In his lectures, as often in his articles, he strayed from one point to another, sometimes losing the main thread. Thus the wealth of information he had to impart easily confused the undergraduate type of student. But even those who had a hard time with his presentation abounding in classical quotations and in new technical terms, were impressed by his genuine enthusiasm and by his personal interest in his students; it is well known how he offered asylum to his student, Rudolf Hess, after the Hitler putsch in 1923, but he also tried to use his influence later to get students out of trouble with the Nazi authorities.

Soon he became known among the conservative intelligentsia, especially students, teachers, professional people, and army officers, as one to turn to for guidance in the crisis. The appeal made by his person and his ideas was in itself a reflection of the yearning, in these unsettled years, for a man who would analyse the conditions of the crisis and offer a formula for overcoming the troubles of the time. As a writer, he covered every aspect from the scholarly book to the journalistic comment on current events. In consequence, his articles called forth the interest of a number of scientific geographers as well as of the radical activists; the growing totalitarians of both the Nazi and the Marxist brand saw in the global dynamism of geopolitics a link between traditional imperialism and their own plans for world conquest.

The wide knowledge of foreign literature as revealed in Haushofer's publications covered not only Anglo-Saxon political geography, but also the French school of *Geographie Humaine,* and Italian, Russian, South-, and East-Asiatic works. His ability quickly to combine a maze of details in a comprehensive picture went along with unusual linguistic capacities. His recurrent basic theme, the phenomenon of global power, had been expounded by Mackinder in his *Geographical Pivot of History* in the year of Japan's attack on Russia, and in his *Democratic Ideals and Reality* in the year of Versailles. Haushofer understood the implications of Mackinder's theories for a country located like Germany in the contact area of land and sea power, with the ensuing opportunities and risks. The potentialities of a Russo-German alliance as the key to the domination of Eurasia, became one of his axioms, and cooperation with

Russia, no matter under what regime, remained a subject of many geopolitical articles. The professor in Munich, where the rule of the rabble in 1920 had taught an unforgettable lesson about a Communist regime, was no friend of the masters of the Kremlin; but, in contrast to the common German attitude, the laws of geography had more weight with him than ideological predilections or aversions. This was the political line, first worked out by Brockdorff-Rantzau, who successfully used his ambassadorship in Moscow to undo the work of Versailles, and by the high command of the Reichswehr. This idea of cooperation of course was understood to imply a preponderant share of German leadership in the control of the Eastern hemisphere, Haushofer's publications very early called attention to the potentialities of a Berlin-Moscow-Tokyo axis, and he did not forget to include Peking in this trans-Eurasian bloc. He was among the first to anticipate the present situation, with the vast expanse from the Rhine to the Amur and the Yangtse under the shadow of one political regime.

Four books mark his literary activities during the Weimar republic like signposts: *Geopolitics of the Pacific* (1924); *Boundaries* (1927); *Strategic Geopolitics* (1931); and *Contributions to Geopolitics* (1928). The last was written in cooperation with Obst, Maull, and Lautensach, as a proof that in these years Haushofer was able to attract the active interest of some of Germany's leading geographers. These books are written in a powerful and colorful language. They are not easy reading; but he did not fail to impart his concept of *Geopolitics as the geographic conscience of the nation* to an eager circle of politically minded readers. It is worth noting that, as a concomitant to the general restlessness, even among professional geographers a new dynamic school began to make headway.

Haushofer's career as a writer reached its most successful stage in the foundation of the *Journal of Geopolitics* in 1924. Until 1944 this journal published about one thousand articles on all the issues of political, economic, and strategic geography, and on countries and areas in every part of the globe. A main feature were the numerous map sketches which since have become an integral feature of all political journalism. With an objectivity sometimes more apparent than real these little maps seemed to present a situation or an issue strikingly and convincingly. Many of these drawings bore witness to his artistic temper. A look at them offers a good illustration that maps, like words, can be a means of truth as well as of propaganda. Even today it is worth while perusing the files of this monthly, which is available in several American libraries, and which, it might be added, soon attracted the attention of Moscow's political scientists.

The articles in the *Journal* are naturally unequal in scope and weight, with the early emphasis on scholarship gradually giving way to journalism. However, even in the years of deterioration during the Hitler regime, the *Journal* maintained a certain level as long as Haushofer was its real and not merely its nominal editor, and it rarely went beyond the minimum of lip service to the political philosophy of the government without which a continued publication under a totali-

tarian regime would have been impossible. A great number of the articles were written by Haushofer himself. They deal with many subjects, but predominantly with Asia and the Pacific area, about which he wrote his monthly *Reports on the Indo-Pacific Area.* Some of the geographers among the early collaborators later made place for younger and more politically than scholarly minded contributors such as Germany's best-known traveloguer, C. Ross. Among the writers of the *Journal* were also Haushofer's sons, Albrecht and Heinz.

The *Journal,* like its editor, kept out of the party strife which gradually tore asunder the Weimar republic. However, the geopolitical tenets were naturally more in line with the traditions of conservatism and nationalism than of liberalism and socialism, and in the later twenties an affinity with the moderate wing of the Nazi party became perceptible in the attitude of some of the articles. The publisher of the *Journal,* Vowinkel—who has taken up its re-publication since 1951—founded in 1931 the *Society for Geopolitics* which soon fell in line with the Nazi foreign policy program. The geopolitical intelectuals felt attracted by the dynamism of the new party and forgot that the language and the concepts of geopolitics were above the grasp even of most of the Nazi leaders. Indeed this strange alliance offers a striking example of the tragicomedy of a fellow-travelling intelligentsia, who, in this case, followed the brown instead of the red line.

In its beginnings Haushofer's monthly was not unlike such American journals as *Foreign Affairs, Current History,* or *US News,* as the titles of articles in the first three issues indicate: "The Law of Growing Spaces;" "Geopolitical Foundations of European Russia;" "The Natural Basis of the Growth of American Countries;" "Mediterranean Seas as Foci of Geopolitical Forces;" "The Problem of Europe;" "Rhine and Danube and the Formation of States;" "Political Consequences of the Japanese Earthquake;" "Geopolitics of Brazil;" "Growth of Countries and Growth of Nations."

The *Journal* offered many competent articles on Soviet Russia and her Asiatic neighbors; and it would have done no harm if the American delegations to Teheran, Yalta, and Potsdam had consulted the analyses of the foundations of Russian foreign policy presented by Haushofer and his associates. While some of his forcasts proved wrong, it is surprising how many of his statements are as valid today as they were twenty years ago. He understood the dangerous potentialities resulting from the combination of the geographic factor of limitless space with the driving dynamism of a global revolutionary mission. He saw Russia's tremendous possibilities in lining up with the coming revolt of the restless masses in China, Indonesia, India, and the Islamic Near East. He emphasized that, being a semi-Asiatic country herself, she was, mentally as well as geographically, closer to the Asiatic half of mankind than were the Western colonial powers, which in consequence of the internecine strife of the war were losing their grip. The blessings of the post-Yalta world in the shadow of the Moscow-Peking axis with the rising tide of revolutionary nationalism from Pyongyang to Casablanca would not have been a surprise to him. Concerning

the recent events in the Near and Middle East, with Suez, Abadan, and Karachi as an alluring prey for the red spiderweb, it is interesting to reread what he wrote in his *Journal* in 1939: "In the Near East as well as in India a Russian policy with long-range objectives has ways of stirring up the masses far beyond the imaginations of the Western mind." Haushofer knew, what both Wilhelm II and Hitler forgot, that Germany could not afford to fight both the Anglosaxon and the Russian empire. In spite of his respect for British leadership and imperial methods, he saw greater opportunities for his country in cooperation with Russia and the Asiatic bloc. While his interests centered around Moscow and Tokyo, he was aware that no domination of Asia was possible without the inclusion of China. China was one more example of a country of immense spaces; and after the Japanese invasion he reminded his friends in Tokyo of the ageless truth—worth remembering today—that such a country cannot be conquered from the outside. In addition to his personal experience he had a great gift for selecting the best experts as sources for his judgments about Asiatic geopolitics; among Americans, he had a very high esteem for Owen Lattimore.

It is only natural that the geopolitical dynamism expressed in Haushofer's writings sometimes has a ring of a philosophy of power. Geopolitics grew, after all, from the striking contrast he felt between the wide areas controlled by other powers, and the depressed status of defeated Germany. The particular tensions of the European situation with the pressure of populations in an overcrowded continent, with a maze of languages, traditions, political and economic systems, gave to the very word for space, *Raum,* overtones of restless dynamism, of expansion and conflict. The many new boundaries created by the blind peacemakers of Versailles seemed to increase the areas of friction. Thus, in the eyes of the geopoliticians, the experience of history proved that Germany, surrounded as she was by pressures directed toward the center of Europe, had either to expand or to be crushed. There is no wonder that this motive was stressed in some of Haushofer's publications during the earlier years of the Nazi regime when the new rulers accepted geopolitics as a possibly useful tool. The three volumes of a work which he wrote with many collaborators as a German counterpart to Bowman's *New World,* were published under the significant title, *Power and Earth.* It ought to be emphasized that Haushofer's concept of power in politics was different from Treitschcke's Prussian Pangermanism and Nietzsche's romantic dreams; his was rather the matter-of-fact acceptance of power as the basic element of political reality, unconcerned with the moral question of whether power is good or bad. While sometimes biased in the direction of imperialism, his belief in reason and knowledge as the foundations of statesmanship was in line with the tradition of Western political thought started by Thucydides, and far removed from the emotional power drunkenness which filled so many German contemporaries.

Much has been written on Haushofer's connection with the Nazi regime and on the rôle of Geopolitics in shaping Hitler's plans for conquest. Headline-hunting journalists told the

American public of Haushofer's Geopolitical Institute training hundreds of masterminds for every task in the Hitlerian universe. Only one thing was wrong with these sensational revelations: there was never such an Institute. Haushofer had nothing but the usual seminar for graduate students like any other German—or American—professor. His personal contacts with the regime came through an old friendship with Rudolf Hess who had been among his officers and after the war attended his class in political geography at the University of Munich. The gloomy and rather dull-witted ex-officer did not display any brilliancy, but Haushofer liked him and had him as a frequent guest in his home. After the Hitler putsch of 1923, when Hess in Hitler's company enjoyed the pleasant type of jail the Weimar republic had for some of its opponents, Haushofer repeatedly visited him while lending him such books as Machiavelli's *Prince* and Clausewitz' *On War*. He talked with the would-be politician about foreign policy and geopolitics. Thus he met Hitler, who took part in their discussions. The half-educated but shrewd demagogue discovered the usefulness of some geopolitical concepts as slogans for his own purpose, and when, with the help of Hess, he wrote his famous hodgepodge, *Mein Kampf*, some half-digested morsels from Haushofer's lectures found their way into the chapter on foreign policy. In the years to come, Haushofer was deceived like others who saw in Hitler nothing but a demagogue temporarily useful for creating mass support for the anti-republican and conservative resistance against the left-wing radicalism of Berlin. Privately Haushofer made no bones about his low personal opinion of Hitler's character and manners. On the other hand, Haushofer was too much of an intellectual and scholar for ever to have been considered even a distant ally by Hitler and the men around him. The language and ideas of even those of his writings which were published with the official approval of the regime, were above the heads of the party politicians. Their distrust against this strange pseudo-ally was increased by his unforgivable sin of being married to a half-Jewish wife.

It is easy today to blame Haushofer for not in time breaking off this uneasy cooperation. If his mind otherwise so brilliant was blind in this regard, he shared this blindness with other members of the cultural and social upper-class in the vanguard of the rising Nazi power. He, and they, forgot that, as always in history, the pseudo-alliance between conservative intellectuals and a revolutionary movement would prove to be the undoing of the elite of brains and birth. The contradictions in Haushofer's relations with the Nazis became clear at an early date. Soon after the seizure of power some of the party extremists staged a search of his home on account of his advocacy of cooperation with Soviet Russia, while at the same time he was highly honored as president of the German Academy, and there was even some talk of making him rector of the University of Munich. Despite the ominous signs he hoped that the new regime might offer a wide scope for his geopolitical planning. In these days he wrote a pamphlet, *The National-Socialist Idea in the World* which, as many of his writings at this period, seemed to indicate a coinci-

dence in some points between his concepts and the official foreign policy. He felt sure that his advice would contribute to a policy understanding and utilizing the potentialities as well as the limitations of Germany's geographical situation. Against the anti-Russian hotheads he insisted upon the geographic and strategic necessities of maintaining a workable relation with the Kremlin. The alliance between Hitler and Stalin in 1939, although undertaken by both sides only as a measure of expediency, appeared as a victory of geography over party ideology, and the articles in Haushofer's *Journal* abounded in projects and forecasts resulting from the achievement, so long hoped for, of the *Heartland* axis, with its extensions to Rome and Tokyo. The ideological friendship between Berlin and Rome did not deceive Haushofer about the unsurmountable geographic and strategic weakness of Mussolini's pseudo-empire. On the other hand, his acquaintance with the geographical and psychological conditions of Japanese policy gave him a decisive part in drawing Japan, at least temporarily, into the German orbit under the misgivings of Hitler's Nordic supermen.

However, with the increasing radicalization of the regime his star began to wane. His personal influence on Hitler had always been negligible. He never met him alone. The fact that Haushofer had the courage to speak up to him, did not ingratiate him with the *Fuehrer*. The last time he was admitted to the august presence in the fall of 1938 when the regime was about to enter its most ruthless stage, he parted from him in violent disagreement. When Hess—to whom he had dedicated one of his major popular books as late as 1937—fled to England, Haushofer's last link with the Nazi leadership was gone; and, at the same time, the new anti-Russian turn in policy indicated that also his master idea had fallen into disgrace. Hence he lived in the precarious position of a fallen authority in a totalitarian state. He was allowed to continue his work as the editor of the *Journal* under tightening censorship until in fall 1944 he announced in thinly veiled language that considerable delay was to be expected before the publication of the next issue. There was indeed some delay: the next issue did not appear until 1951; and he did not live to see it.

His fall was further complicated through his involvement in the tragedy of his son, Albrecht. Albrecht Haushofer was, like his father, one of the outstanding Germans of our time. He combined the abilities of a scholar, statesman, writer, and poet. His dramas and sonnets rank high among the works of modern German poetry. In the wake of his father he became one of Germany's leading political geographers and taught at the Institute for International Affairs at the University of Berlin. At the same time he was active in the service of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Because of his world-wide travels and close contacts with leading personalities, especially in England and Japan, he was able to write for the government masterly reports and analyses of political situations and personalities. He was

a fertile writer of books and articles, and for seven years co-editor of the *Journal*. His *Foundations of Geopolitics,* which he left in manuscript, has been considered good enough to be published now, six years after his death. His keen mind recognized in time that Hitler's boundless dreams of power would end in Germany's downfall. In contrast to his ageing father, who did not see any way to cut himself loose from at least passive cooperation with the regime, he tried to warn and joined the active conservative resistance which tried to save Germany—and Europe—by the elimination of Hitler. In consequence, he was among the many arrested after the attempt on Hitler's life in July 1944 had failed. In April 1945, he was killed as one of the last victims of the regime, after having written in the jail of the Gestapo his *Moabiter Sonette,* the greatest poetic document of anti-Hitler Germany.

His father also was arrested, and in the concentration camp at Dachau he had several months time to think about the hopes he once had harbored for his part as geopolitical adviser of the new regime. Even so, after the fall of the Reich, his former prominence as a spokesman of power politics and the alleged usefulness of his ideas and work to Hitler's policy of world conquest, caused the victors to consider his possible guilt as a cooperator of the so-called war criminals. As was to be expected he was cleared from all criminal—though, for American judgment, not from all moral—guilt, after the noted political scientist, Father Walsh, who was in charge of his case, had discussed with him the foundations and tenets of his geopolitical system and his direct and indirect participation in the foreign policy of the Reich. The necessity of justifying his ways and ideas before the Allied investigation as well as before himself made him later hand over to Father Walsh his *Apology of Geopolitics* as the summing up of his life work in the face of the final catastrophe.

For the second time he had to witness the fall of his country through its own fault. The way to which he had trusted for turning Germany into a great power had proved wrong again. There remained nothing to stand for or to hope for. Thus, true to the Stoic conviction which he had admired through many years, he decided to leave a useless life at his own time. One morning in March 1946, he was found dead, together with his wife, who had been his closest companion and collaborator in a happy marriage of nearly fifty years. Thus ended the tragedy of a man who impressed all those who ever met him as one of the most striking personalities of this age of confusion and turmoil.

His work, however, survives. The misuse the Nazi regime made of it as of everything else it touched, ought not to prevent American geographers from separating the grain from the chaff. It is fortunate that the interest in geopolitics is growing among American geographers. N. Spykman, G. Renner, and many others have recognized and emphasized the solid aspects of Haushofer's Geopolitics as

a means of educating the American people in this time of world crisis to a clear and unemotional appreciation of the geographic conditions underlying political realities and political action.

SELECTED RECENT LITERATURE ON HAUSHOFER AND GEOPOLITICS

H. W. Weigert, *Generals and Geographers*, N. Y., 1942.

R. Strausz-Hupe, *Geopolitics*, N. Y., 1942.

D. S. Whittlesey (in collab. with C. C. Colby and R. Hartshorne), *German Strategy of World Conquest*, N. Y., 1942.

A. Dorpalen, *The World of General Haushofer*, N. Y., 1942.

J. Mattern, *Geopolitics*, Baltimore, 1942.

I. Bowman, "Geography vs. Geopolitics," *Geogr. Rev.* 32 (1942), 646-58.

J. J. Thorndike, Jr., "Geopolitics," *Life*, Dec. 21, 1942, 106-15.

A. Gyorgy, *Geopolitics*, Berkeley, 1944.

H. W. Weigert, V. Stefansson, & others, *Compass of the World*, N. Y., 1944.

E. A. Walsh, "The Mystery of Haushofer," *Life*, Sept. 16, 1946, 106-20.

C. Troll, "Die Geogr. Wissenschaft in Deutschland i.d.J. 1933-45," *Erdkunde* 1 (1947), 17-22.

E. A. Walsh, *Total Power*, N. Y., 1948.

H. W. Weigert & others, *New Compass of the World*, N. Y., 1949.

Griffith Taylor, "Geopolitics and Geopacifics," in *Geography in the XX Century*, N. Y., 1951, 587-608.

S. van Valckenburg, "The German School of Geography," in *Geogr. in the XX Cent.*, N. Y., 1951, 103 f.

To Help Boys and Girls Understand Today's Problems

WORLD GEOGRAPHY

New Edition

By JOHN HODGDON BRADLEY

Broad, dynamic treatment for secondary schools. Up to date in content. Write for information.

Ginn and Company

Home Office: Boston 17

Sales Offices: New York 11 Chicago 16 Atlanta 3 Dallas 1 Columbus 16 San Francisco 3 Toronto 5

STAFF HANDBOOK FOR

The High School Newspaper

By CARL G. MILLER

Lewis & Clarke High School
Spokane, Washington

This is a new revised edition of this popular handbook for members of the high school newspaper staff. Clear, concise instructions are provided for each member of the staff and the sections on General Policies, Staff Leadership, Rules for Copy, Ten Make-Up Rules, copyreading and Proofreading Signs, Rules for Column Writing and Style are most helpful. The use of this handbook will save hours of the adviser's time and contribute toward better education and a better paper. Price 35 cents.

"The little book can be a big time-saver for many staffs because its rules and basic policies are very sound."

Bernard A. Shepard
Instructor of Journalism
Fresno State College, Fresno, Cal.

THE PALMER COMPANY

370 ATLANTIC AVE., BOSTON 10, MASS.

Some Geographic Aspects *of the* Russian Expansion

By SIGISMOND DER. DIETTRICH
University of Florida

IN spite of the hopes and aspirations, V-J Day did not terminate the world struggle which broke loose in 1914. It merely marked the closing of its second phase of open warfare. The Allies won the greatest military victory recorded in history, yet peace has not come. During the Second World War there was lack of basic understanding of the problems of the USSR and that of the Russians and the American inclination for optimistic, wishful thinking resulted in an almost childish adulation of the "great experiment in industrial democracy." Written documents like their "constitution" were taken on face value without any serious investigation of the actualities, and many believed that the USSR was merely a type of a true democracy which respected the rights of individuals.

Furthermore there was abysmal ignorance about the Russian plans of conquest and of economic and political infiltration of Central and Eastern Europe, which is as old as Russia and which uses communism as a tool to achieve its own ends. A cultural and political phase of this Russian idea developed long ago and expressed itself in the title "The Tsar of all Russians." Later it was known as Panslavism. This -ism, a powerful political force mostly disguised as a cultural movement, was little known and even less bothered about in the United States.

In blissful ignorance of the Russian aims and in childish belief that communism could be attuned to capitalism, the democracies warred in the west and permitted Central and Eastern Europe to fall under the military invasion of the USSR. In such fashion there was a shorter, thus cheaper war, but apparently not a final one. The Russians, in possession of more than they ever hoped to acquire at this phase of development, immediately commenced to consolidate their gains. War solidarity and apparent unity of purpose which camouflaged the real goals were now dispersed and the naked truth could be perceived: that the Nazi-Japanese threat had made temporary bed-fellows of people who really do not know and are afraid of each other.

On the small peninsula of Korea the United Nations finally took a stand, stopping aggression by an armed force. In Europe, under the leadership of the United States, a union of free nations is emerging. In Asia a reconstructed Japan is being re-accepted into the Free World. The USSR has drawn an Iron Curtain around her satellites in both Europe and Asia. The world is in a turmoil, and emotions are rampant. It is high time that reason should return. But for this purpose we have to know, that by knowing we

can understand and thus be able to dispel distrust, born of the fear of the unknown. Only by knowing all the phases of the problems involved can we discuss them reasonably and solve them intelligently.

I. The Geographic Factors

The most obvious geographic reality of the USSR is its tremendous size. Extending from the Baltic to the Pacific it encompasses well over eight million square miles of territory. Its west-east expansion extends for 166° of longitude from Memel, 24°E. to Bering Strait, 170°W. This is but 14° less than the half of the circumference of the earth (180°) and represents about 5,600 miles of land distance. The latitudinal expansion is almost 43°. Stretching from Cape Chelyuskin 77° 36'N. to 35°N. at its southernmost point along the border of Afghanistan, it represents almost 3,000 miles of distance. These dimensions give the USSR a peculiarly elongated shape, especially since the country rapidly narrows down from its central greatest width to almost half of it both in its European and east Siberian extremities. Size and shape account for the vast distances found in the USSR. The same factors were preeminent in the retardation of its economic and cultural growth. On the other hand they were among the most important factors in the defense of the country both in the Napoleonic and in the two World Wars. It is true that these factors did not seem to prevent the Russians being defeated by the Central Powers during World War I. But even then Russia was not conquered, but mainly due to the inadequacy of her transport and industrial productivity she lost her battles and the war. That the communists, however, could survive against Allied and White Russian campaigns was mostly due to the large size of the country.

The location of the country is the next factor to be considered. The ramifications of the location are many fold. Only three major aspects of it shall be considered: latitudinal location, its location with reference to oceans and to neighboring peoples. The largest part of the USSR lies between 50°N. and the Arctic Circle which is a handicap. This location so near to the pole places the country into the belts of the cold temperate and tundra climates, rendering most of it undesirable for human occupancy. Since its long northern shore borders on the Arctic Ocean which is frozen over for many months each year, the USSR enjoys little if any benefit from this marine location either from the point of view of climatic influences or where accessability by water is concerned. Recently reported developments in powerful icebreakers may modify the situation to a certain degree and of course the improvement of air transport may cause startling new developments.

Considering its location with reference to the open seas, the USSR possesses the most continental location attainable on earth. No other area in the world can be at such great distance from the shore of oceans and seas as a narrow east-west belt stretching from 70°E. to 90°E. If we consider the fact that the Arctic shore is impracticable as far as navigation is concerned, then this belt can be extended northward forming a strip 1,500 miles in length and over 1,000 miles wide which is over 1,500 miles from the Pacific in the east and the in-

land seas of Europe in the west. In this fashion the USSR embraces practically all of McKinder's "Heartland."

The vastness of the land and its long overland boundary brings the USSR in contact with the European culture in the west, the Mohammedan world and India to the south, China to the southeast, and Japan across the narrow seas. At its easternmost extremity the USSR faces Alaska across the Bering Strait. Since most of the Russians live west of the Urals and since only towards Europe is the country open, the contacts of Russia with the latter were more intimate, frequent and significant than with the other areas which are separated by towering mountains, high plateaus and unbroken stretches of deserts.

Most of the country is a monotonously uniform expanse of flat lowlands on which pagan burial mounds are the most conspicuous features of relief. The low Ural mountains in about the middle of the lowland form the only real break in the landscape. But even these do not cross the full width of the lowlands leaving a wide gap between the mountains and the Caspian Sea. Only along the southern and eastern borders and beyond the Yenisei River occur lofty mountains.

The rivers do not help much. Only the Northern Dvina leading to the White Sea affords an outlet to the ocean controlled entirely by Russia. The others lead either into enclosed seas or into the frozen Arctic Ocean. The largest river of European Russia, the Volga, empties its waters into the Caspian Sea, which is in reality only an oversized saline lake. The Amur instead of following its original direction on turning towards the south, most contrarily turns north and flows into the Sea of Okhotsk. Furthermore her rivers are frozen over from 140 to 160 days in central European Russia and from 5½ to 9 months in Siberia and along the Arctic Coast.

Yet the rivers played a very important role in Russian history, mostly due to the fact that all the important rivers of European Russia originate in or near the Valdai Hills. Radiating hence in all directions these streams formed an important network of travel and transport. Even today much of the heavy traffic is carried by river boats and barges.

The vastness of the area, the monotonous lack of relief features are in great contrast with Europe. They permitted the development of a homogenious people and culture. Thus while there is a great diversity of peoples and ethnic groups, yet the dominant Russians constitute the overwhelming majority of the people (77%). They occupy the central, best lands of the USSR. The rest of the people of 180 different nationalities speaking almost 150 different languages and dialects are widely scattered in the less desirable fringes of the domain. Except for the Baltic people, the Jews and the Volga Germans, (if these still exist), the others are considerably below the economic and cultural level of the Russians.

The climate of the USSR is its greatest handicap. Its continentality enhanced by its northern location renders the greater part of the country ill suited for human occupancy. There are almost 4½ million acres which are too cold, usually remaining covered by snow for half of the year. Here people cannot carry on agriculture, thus their number has to be limited to that which can be main-

tained by other pursuits such as fishing, mining, lumbering, and trapping. None of these occupations will ever be able to support many people. East of the lower Volga stretching to the Chinese boundary are 850,000,000 acres which receive less than 10″ of precipitation, thus they are too dry for dense occupancy. Irrigation, drainage, and the expansion of Sub-Arctic production may somewhat change these figures but even under the most optimistic calculations, four million square miles will never support more than a few people.

The world's most fertile soil, the chernozem, occurs in a wide zone running from the shores of the Black Sea through the Caspian Gate deep into Siberia. This soil is fertile but its productivity is below that of the priarie soils due to the smaller precipitation. South of the chernozem occurs the chestnut brown soil where the variability and the decreasing amount of precipitation render agriculture less productive and more risky. Two thirds of European Russia and a much higher proportion of Siberia are covered with podsolic soils and true podsols. The area beyond the Arctic Circle has bog soils.

According to these considerations then the effective area of the USSR is greatly reduced and is comparable to the total area of the United States. Yet actually even further reductions have to be effected. First in the southern zone of the Ukrain the annual variability of precipitation is so great that often instead of being a producer of food surpluses, it becomes a famine area. In this respect it resembles the sub-humid western margin of The Middle West now mostly evacuated by farmers and returned to grazing. In the north the climate is too cool for the production of important food crops and possesses too poor soils. The lack of relief and extensive ground moraines produced large tracts of marshes. All in all the agriculturally productive area of the USSR is actually smaller than that of the United States. Furthermore the 30 million American farmers on 350 million acres produced more than the 130 million Russians on about the same acreage.

The USSR is well endowed with natural resources. Coal, oil, water power, minerals both metallic and nonmetallic are abundant. But unfortunately many of them occur in widely separated, distant areas. Thus, for their full use it is essential that the country should have an adequate transportation system. This, despite the efforts of the government, has not been realized as yet. Great improvements were made before the last war and the length of railroad tracks was almost doubled as compared to 1913. The government's efforts to stimulate a more complete use of their resources was manifested in the successive five year plans. Yet natural handicaps and human inertia could not be overcome in two decades thus in no phase of production have they attained the efficiency of the United States.

These of course are significant facts, the implications of which are clear. The rapid rate of increase of the Russian people causes considerable concern in the West. But if their actually effective land is no larger than that of the United States, and their resources are not more abundant and less fortunately located, then they will not be able to outgrow the United States. Nor will it be possible for them to raise

the efficiency of their economy above the American level unless the people in the United States utterly fail in their productive efforts, which seems unlikely.

II. The Historical Factors

In the historical development of Russia and the Russians the vast expanse of the country made its unification difficult, therefore, there were several small early centers of development. These were sometimes competing with each other, then again superseding each other. In addition to the size factors the dense forest cover of the land hampered the early development of a united nation. The forest was an obstacle to easy movement. It was more a seepage than migration that brought the various Slav people in the wake of fierce Germanic or Turko-Tatar conquerors. As they moved in the forest they made small clearings and tilled the soil. Thus they lived in small, isolated groups. These developed a strong communal feeling and were distinctly clannish, not easily organized into a state. As the medium to poor podsolic soil gave out people moved to new clearings.

The picture was quite different on the grassland to the south of the forest. Here mobile, horse riding nomads subsisting on herds and the plunder of their marauding expeditions into the settled lands formed well organized military states. These, however, destroyed civilization and if they happened to survive for any length of time that meant stagnation, even retrogression in the area's development.

In the early phases the nomad ruled the steppe and exacted tribute from the forest people. As time went on conditions changed. The mobility of the steppe nomad permitted the break-up of the centralized state and the small productivity of nomadism limited the manpower of the plainsmen. The forest people buying peace by paying tribute slowly cleared away the forest, expanded their production and increased their numbers. As soon as a strong enough center developed which could unite the by-now not so highly isolated people of the clearings, the struggle would flare up anew but with the rôles exchanged. Now the forest people became agressive and finally they succeeded in subduing and often expelling the nomad invader. The grassland then was colonized by the forest people.

Such was the early history of the Russians. They lived in the forest when outside influences started the first organized development along the easily accessible river valleys radiating from the Valdai Hills. So we witness the development of Novgorod under the Rurik dynasty. These Scandinavian sea-robbers and traders (there was little distinction between the two) entered the Neva, Lake Ladoga, Volkhov, Lake Ilman, Lovat system. An easy portage led them to the Dnieper and the Black Sea. In the Dnieper Valley where the Desna joins the master stream and where the higher Podolian platform approaches the stream and affords protection against the floods, developed Kiev, the early southern center of Russia. There in the 10th century flourished a mighty empire built on trade linking the Baltic with the Black Sea, Nordic Scandinavia with the Byzantine Empire. Once a fleet of 2,000 boats floated down the river and levied tribute from the Greek Emperors. Not only trade

and tribute but civilization and religion came from Byzantium.

The significance of this move cannot be underestimated. First, Orthodox Christianity under the sway of strong imperial power developed into a complete caesaro-papism where church and state became synonimous, with the lay power of the head of the state usurping the spiritual powers of the church. Second, a few decades after the conversion of the Kiev Russians occurred the Great Schism. Thereafter eastern Christianity did not partake in the great events of the western church which shaped the destiny of Europe. Third, when after the fall of Constantinople the Tsar of all Russians declared himself the head and defender of Orthodoxy, he enlisted religion in the service of Russian imperialistic expansion. Whenever Imperial Russia aimed at the conquest of Constantinople, the pious excuse used was the protection of Christians and to replace the Cross on the Hagia Sophia. It was used also, like Panslavic propaganda, to further Russian imperialism as in the case of the establishment by the High Porte, under Russian pressure, of the Bulgarian Exarchate in 1870 followed by the Russo-Turkish war of 1878, culminating in the creation of a Big Bulgaria, just to be re-made into Little Bulgaria by the Treaty of Berlin. Finally, being spared the convulsions of the Renaissance and Reformation the state dominated Orthodoxy became ultraconservative, not only in its religious, but even more so in its socio-political attitudes. No wonder that the Bolshevik revolutionaries saw in the Russian Church one of their chief opponents and considered Christianity as a mere opiate used by the state to justify the intolerable socio-economic conditions of Tsarist Russia. The rapid spread of atheism among Russian masses attested not only to the effectiveness of communistic propaganda but also to the fact that much of the criticism levelled against the state-church was based on realities. Thus the belated "reformation" of Orthodoxy came about on political and economic grounds and not because of conflicting theological principles. It brought about the well-nigh destruction of the faith.

The first Kiev empire weakened by the nomadic invasions which cut it off from the Black Sea slowly gave way to Moska and the Muscovite Empire. The early 13th century witnessed the last mass invasion of Asiatic hordes through the Caspian Gate. First, came Jenghiz Khan followed by Batu. Under the latter the Tatars invaded Poland, Hungary, and Croatia. His hordes conquered and burned all the Russian towns, but Novgorod. The Tatars settled on the steppe but they also held the forest under their domination. As the forest people slowly recovered their strength they became united under the leadership of the Grand Duke of Moska.

Led by the rivers the Muscovite power expanded west, north, and south. The republic of Novgorod fell in 1478. Just previously through the the claim of his wife, a Byzantine princess, Ivan III assumed the title of Tsar and the Imperial Badge of the fallen Byzantium. This expansion brought Russia into conflict with Poland and hence ensued the long struggle between the two Slav yet hostile powers, western, Catholic Poland and eastern, Orthodox Russia.

The middle of the 16th century

marked the final crushing of the Tatar power at Kazan and the opening up of the Caspian Gate. Hence the movement of the people was reversed and the Russians overflowed into Siberia. During the next century the Ukrain was annexed and the first really European influence penetrated Russia. Peter the Great deliberately turned his people's attention to the west, defeated the Baltic power of Sweden, conquered the Baltic coast and parts of Finland. Finally, he moved the seat of the empire from central Moska which faced the Black Sea and the Caspian Gate to the western window of St. Petersburg, his newly built capital on the marshes of the Neva. Under his successors Poland disappeared, having been absorbed by Prussia, Russia and Austria. Thus Russia achieved the status of a great power and immediately became involved in European politics.

During the 19th century the influence of the geographic factors came to full fruitition. The failure of Napoleon caused by the great distance at which his army had to fight from its base, when efficient transportation was still lacking, by the Russian's sacrifice in burning all provisions before retreating, and lastly by the inclement Russian winter, enhanced the prestige and the power of Russia. But at the same time it evoked the fear and jealousy of the other powers which resulted in the complicated diplomatic game of cross and double cross from the Congress of Vienna to the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk.

What were the aims of Russia? In brief it can be stated that it was her desire to break down the isolation imposed upon her by her continental location, or expressed in other words the desire for an ice-free port on a warm, open sea. In the light of this it is easy to understand her actions. The western window had to be secured, Finland had to be conquered, which automatically secured the northern outlet towards the Gulf Stream influenced Arctic. The Dardanelles and Bosporus should be secured to give an outlet from the bottled up Black Sea. The successive attempts of Russia were always thwarted by the Western Powers. The Mediterranean was considered the life line of the British Empire, the link of the French Empire and even Italy, weak as she was, would not welcome the Russian bear in Constantinpole. Naturally, such a move would jeopardize Austria and after the consolidation of the Reich it would have meant cutting the Berlin-Baghdad line.

When direct approach failed Russia assuming the protectorate of the small Orthodox Slav and Non-Slav nations of the Balkans tried to establish herself there. This was an indirect attack on the Straits. The results were no better. Big Bulgaria of the San Stefano treaty was trimmed down by the treaty of Berlin to the Danube Foreland and the rest returned to Turkey. To compensate for the Russian advance in the eastern Balkans, Austria-Hungary was given permission to occupy the Bosnia-Hercegovina. It was hoped that this latter will be extended through the occupation of the Sandzhak (Western Macedonia) to Salonika. The occupation shut the door on Serbia's desire to expand to the Adriatic, which would have been disliked by Italy. The "sick man of Europe" accepted the proffered hand of Germany who dreamed of breaking her isloation by

the construction of the Berlin-Baghdad railroad aiming at the Persian Gulf and India. This of course caused worry in Great Britain.

Meanwhile the Russiophil policy of Germany disappeared and another idea came to the fore. Russia mainly aiming at Turkey in the Balkans and at the Austria-Hungarian empire in Middle Danubia, fostered the Panslavic movement which instilled burning nationalism into the various lesser Slavic people, forming age-old inlayers in the mass of German and Hungarian people of the Danube Valley, and into the conquered nations of the Balkan Penninsula. Backed by Russia, neither Austria nor Hungary could withstand the united Slavic attack. Thus if Austria-Hungary fell and the Balkans came under Russian domination whatever plans Germany had could not be carried out. As a matter of fact it would complete the encirclement of Germany. Therefore, Germany had to protect the status-quo in the Danube lands, counter balance the Russian influence in the Balkans and strengthen Turkey against any foe. On the other hand they considered the Slavs as their inferiors who could not develop their country efficiently. The Germans could do it better. Especially the Ukrain was the part that could be used to advantage. The idea of dominating at least the southern part of Russia was born. In response to this threat the Franco-Russian alliance was concluded.

The other Russian attempt was to break through Persia or Afghanistan. Here again Britain stopped Russia and secured for herself the sphere of influence along the Persian Gulf. Russia had to back down before British sea power.

In the west Russia succeeded because nobody cared too much. The Baltic was conquered while Europe was busy elsewhere. Finland did not mean anything to anyone but Sweden and she lost a war. Furthermore, the Baltic could be blockaded any time. The ice free north coast was unapproachable as yet.

In the south Russia was rebuffed, stopped and her military victories nullified by diplomacy. She even lost the right to keep naval vessels on the Black Sea! The "independence" of Persia and Afghanistan had been "protected" by Great Britain. The "integrity" of Turkey was safeguarded and guaranteed by all the western powers. Just how much did this Turkey include nobody defined, but judging from events it really meant only Constantinople, the Dardanelles and Asia Minor, and whatever territory Russia would claim for herself or for her satellites.

The least resistance was shown by the few half civilized remnant folks of Siberia. At the Pacific Russia came to an open warm sea, but at what distance! When with this momentum they crossed the Bering Straits, they stepped upon our toe, the Monroe Doctrine. That at least was amicably settled by the Alaska Purchase.

Coming to the Pacific the Russians became involved in China and forced her to yield Manchuria and Port Arthur, which latter with the surrounding territory was "leased" for 99 years. To utilize this vast territory, the Russians built the world's longest railroad, the Trans-Siberian, from Petrograd to Vladivostok and the spur lines through Manchuria. It appeared that maybe in this venture they did not step upon anybody's toes in particular, save China's and that did not count. But that was a false assump-

tion. The Russia-Japanese war ensued resulting in the loss of half of Sakhalin island, the southern part of Manchurian sphere of influence and Port Arthur to Japan.

Internal trouble further weakened the country and even if the Balkan war was somewhat a measure of success the fratricidal second Balkan war in which the victors fought over the spoils certainly reduced its value. The strains and stresses were too great and conditions were too precarious when a hired assassin murdered the heir presumptive of Austria-Hungary. It is rather ironical that Francis Ferdinand and his Czech wife should be killed by a Slav when he openly stated that after his ascent to the throne he was going to reconstitute the dual-monarchy into a Slav dominated state.

The first World War brought the downfall of Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, the creation of a number of small Slav states, the re-birth of Turkey, glory and economic hardships if not yet ruin to France, disillusionment to Italy, the first bitter taste of a successful blockade to Great Britain, the emergence of two new great powers, the United States and Japan, the latter's rise marked the first phase of the waning supremacy of white men.

Russia fell under the sway of communism and the capitalistic democracies cut her back from Europe proper. Finland and the Baltic states were liberated. The USSR retained a mere peep-hole on the Gulf of Finland. Petsamo went to Finland. Military operations against the Bolsheviks failed as a whole and old Russia proper remained intact, but resurrected Poland expanded to the east and included White Russian territories. Thus Russia was isolated from Europe.

Everybody was sure communism, a system devised for a highly industrialized country, would not work in Russia, but it did. Why? The explanation lies in Russian history. The people reared in the Orthodox religion, held in servitude by the ruling class, lived in a communal system of argriculture, the mir, which even after the abolishment of servitude in 1861 remained in force. They were never really Europeans. They formed the bridge between the individualism of Europe and the complete lack of it in the Orient. The Soviet system which gave them land, eliminated their oppressors and promised them a better lot, was welcomed and embraced by the people. The dictatorial manner in which the government was functioning was nothing new to them. That was the type they were used to. The masses of Russia never gave a thought to individual rights, they never had them, so they couldn't miss them. Their level of existence today is much higher than it ever was before and the Russians do not seem to mind paying the price for it. They proved their loyalty to the Soviet system in the last war.

How about their expansion? There nothing new has been added. The blue prints were in the mind of Peter the Great. Have the methods changed? Only in name. Tsarist Russia used Pan-Slavism, money, the defense of Christianity as its excuse for expansion. The Soviets use communism, money, and the defense of peoples democracy as their tools of conquest.

Wherein is the difference? First, the USSR is successful where Tsarist Russia was not. Second, Pan-Slavism is ultimately limited in its scope and

its aims are political. Communism is a socio-economic religion of collectivism which hopes to supplant western individualism as expressing itself in the economic sphere as capitalism, in the political life as nationalism and in religion as Christianity, thus communism is world wide in its scope. It is in this phase of the struggle where the question arises, *little man, what now?*

There are two main factors involved in the present struggle: the first is the age-old policy of Russian expansion, the second is the mortal combat between two ways of life, those of the western democracies and of the communist inspired Soviet system. The events behind the Iron Curtain have amply proved that wherever the communists gain the upper hand, there no moral, ethical, political or economic principles of the West will be tolerated, freedom in any form is banished and the individual becomes completely subordinated to the will of the dictatorial *elite*.

Though it could be conceivable that the West and the USSR may have come to some agreement if the latter's aims were confined only to the limits of the old Russian policy, nevertheless, since the USSR of today is the militant exponent of communism as well, and since her leaders have gone beyond the limits of the old Russian policy and aim at world domination reached by the destruction of the very essence of western civilization, such a compromise would mean suicide for the West.

In the divided world, even with the regrettable loss of China, geographic advantages are still with the Free World. The human factor is still in the favor of the West. But western statesmen and politicians after talking big gave in to military might. The light of freedom was extinguished in one country after the other before the West finally awoke to the dangers of Russian communism. After some more desultory talks, aggression was stopped by the united action of the UN in Korea. With this a temporary stalemate was reached.

Korea is only one of the many possible fronts of Soviet aggression. A stalemate there may provoke action elsewhere. The Anglo-Iranian dispute, the French Indo-China trouble, the India-Pakistan dispute, Burma, Thailand all offer possibilities for Russian intervention. Or it may come through an armed conflict with the heretic Tito's regime.

The Free World through action by the UN has to stop any further aggression by the communists. A full military preparedness of the West is essential for that. The Free World has at least to match the communists' military might. The economic rehabilitation of war-torn areas has to continue. The ideas embodied in the Point Four Program have to be carried out. But, most of all, if the free people of the world cherish their way of life and want to perpetuate it they have to return to the moral bases and reestablish the ethical values of their world and be guided by them in all their actions. Marxian communism is the ultimate reduction of materialism. No atom bomb, no military might and no economic efficiency can save western civilization and the western way of life unless the people of the West are willing to sacrifice everything material including their own lives in the defense of high moral and ethical standards of their own civilization.

The Significance *of* Geopolitical Changes *in* Eastern Europe

By HUEY LOUIS KOSTANICK
University of California, Los Angeles

THE outstanding postwar feature of Eastern Europe is the impact of Soviet power and ideology following war-time economic destruction and population displacement. This impact carries over in all fields of cultural activity—political, idealogical, and economic, as well as military. In Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union has directly annexed 187,000 square miles of territory with a population of 23 million—comparable to the total area of Washington and Oregon and the combined population of New York and Illinois. In addition, Soviet power has been extended westward through creation of a large bloc of satellite states and through Soviet military occupation of Eastern Germany and Eastern Austria. In conjunction with Soviet expansion has come a major Slavic westward movement, which has wiped out a thousand years of Germanic expansion.

The impact of Soviet power applies in almost as strong a measure in other countries of Eastern and Central Europe outside the Soviet sphere of influence, as it applies to the Soviet satellite states themselves. In the immediate post-war period, Greece was faced not only with the problems of post-war rehabilitation but also with the problem of Communist guerrilla warfare which threatened to split Greece through loss of the fertile plains of Macedonia and western Thrace. Although guerrilla action was stopped, military expenditures must still be maintained in the event of resurgence of such guerrilla activity. Similarly, Turkey has been disquieted by Soviet demands for participation in military defense of the Turkish Straits. These pressures have created severe drains on the economics of Greece and Turkey. As a direct result, the United States undertook the task of supplying economic and military aid to these countries and thus became the other major power actively participating in Eastern European affairs.

The full impact on the satellite states cannot, as yet, be fully evaluated both because of scarcity of accurate information from behind the Iron Curtain and also because a long period of time will be necessary to see whether Soviet ideas will actually be accepted by the peoples of Eastern Europe or whether they will be but temporary features maintained only by strength of Soviet power. Certain basic effects are, however, clearly evident.

Politically, a Soviet bloc has been formed of Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Albania, while Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania have been directly annexed to the U.S.S.R. The satellite coun-

tries are dominated by Communist governments, which have made political, economic, and military agreements both with the Soviet Union and among themselves. This does not necessarily mean that the peoples of these countries accept Communist principles, nor that they accede to the losses of territory to the Soviet Union or to each other, but it does mean that Communist doctrines and policies prevail in these countries although they are still legally independent.

It is, indeed, extremely doubtful that the peasant can for long accept the basic tenets of Communism, particularly the collectivization of land, without serious economic and social consequences. Private ownership of land has been a fundamental part of the philosophy of the peasant for many generations. It is particularly in this sphere that Soviet ideology impinges upon the individual peasant to whom the land is the sole guarantee of his future and the most tangible gift he can hope to bestow on his children.

Further ideological difficulties are posed by the internationalism of Communism and by the leading position ascribed to the Soviet Union, both of which clash with the nationalistic tendencies of the peoples of each nation. This clash was undoubtedly a partial cause of the political defection of Communist-dominated Yugoslavia from the Soviet bloc. The numerous satellite political alliances with the Soviet Union are a direct reversal of the more traditional ties with Western European countries, from whom aid has historically been sought in the earlier battles for independence from former empires and during the interwar period of alliance with Great Britain, France, and Germany.

Alliance with the Soviet Union has also reversed the traditional pattern of trade with Western Europe. Eastern Europe has, essentially, an agricultural economy, which must export agricultural commodities, especially meats and grains, in exchange for manufactured goods. In the interwar period, Germany, which in turn needed agricultural products, became the major trader with almost all of the countries of the area. The Danube River played a major role in this trade and, in addition, northwestern European ports served as outlets for Eastern European exports to other areas of the world. In the postwar period, the trade of the satellites was reoriented toward the Soviet Union, whose economy could be bolstered by the valuable supplies of foods and industrial crops as well as Rumanian petroleum and other minerals. Partly because of this shift, and partly because Yugoslavia controls a portion of the Danube, Danubian trade has seriously decreased and the river's role as a major commercial artery of Europe has been altered.

It is within this new political framework that the major aspects of Eastern Europe must be analyzed because the shift in powers has signally affected the postwar geopolitical patterns of the area and has created another phase in its traditional rôle of being the "shatter belt" of Europe.

Realignment of Eastern Europe—The Movement Westward

A basic realignment of Eastern Europe both politically and demographically has been created by the loss of German and Italian territories and the subsequent westward expansion of the Soviet Union and of other Slavic

states. This expansion has taken place in different zones and in different fashions. The Soviet Union has advanced westward territorially through annexation of areas from each of the countries that bordered her on the west, and politically through creation of the Soviet bloc and through military occupation of Eastern Germany and of Eastern Austria. Poland and Yugoslavia have also gained territory at the expense of their western neighbors.

This westward expansion is most evident in the reversal of previous German expansion into Eastern Europe. Viewed broadly, this reversal may be expressed in terms of three successive "axes" having Trieste as the southern pivot. In 1939, the axis between Germanic and Slavic control extended roughly from Trieste to Königsberg (Kaliningrad) in German East Prussia. In the postwar period, through German losses of territory to Poland the line of German-Slav territorial and ethnic division swung westward to extend from Trieste to Stettin (Szczecin). But the ultimate Slavic political advance is more realistically marked by the western border of Soviet military occupation as represented by the Trieste-Lübeck axis, although the occupied territory is still German populated.

This Trieste-Lübeck axis corresponds very closely to the ethnic frontier between the Germans and Slavs in the early Middle Ages. The basic significance of this power realignment was aptly expressed by Werner J. Cahnman in "Frontiers Between East and West in Europe," in the *Geographical Review* of October, 1949, when he said, "Of such immensity was the Slavic victory that it has wiped out at one stroke more than a thousand years of history." From the standpoint of the German nation, this is indeed true because not only have territories been lost but the former German minority groups in Eastern Europe have been virtually eliminated as well.

This constitutes a major change in the rôle of Eastern Europe, in that, from a practical standpoint, Eastern Germany and Eastern Austria, usually considered as Central Europe, are now the border zone of German-Slav contact. In addition, the Slavic group has been expanded and consolidated. Both of these features are a significant corollary to the rise of the Soviet Union as a world power.

The realization by the Western powers of the extent of Soviet penetration in Europe is clearly expressed by the invitation to Greece and Turkey to join the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. While it may seem to contravene geographic reality to include these eastern Mediterranean nations into a North Atlantic regional alliance, the action in fact recognizes the geopolitical reality of power realignment in Eastern Europe and the strategic position of both countries in the critical area of the Balkans and the Near East.

Soviet Territorial Expansion in Eastern Europe

Since 1939, approximately 187,000 square miles of territory with an estimated population of nearly 23 million have been annexed by the U.S.S.R. These territories are now administered as integral parts of the Soviet Union, either as newly-created Soviet republics or as additions to former Soviet administrative units. This expansion represents the greatest territorial change resulting from World

War II, and was achieved at the expense of a number of East European countries.

In the Arctic zone, the Soviet Union gained from Finland the ice-free port of Petsamo, west of the Soviet port of Murmansk which in winter is kept open only by icebreakers. A difficulty will be posed, however, by the necessity of extending communication lines to Petsamo, which lies at considerable distance from the major areas of Soviet production. Finland's loss of her Arctic Ocean front has given the Soviet Union a common boundary with Norway—a distinct Soviet political advantage in view of the difference in size between the two countries.

Another zone of Soviet advance was the vital Baltic Lowland, a portion of the North European Plain which has served as the invasion route to Western Europe for centuries. It is in this zone that Finland suffered its greatest loss to the Soviet of valuable agricultural land in the Viborg-Lake Ladoga area. In addition, a Soviet lease was granted to the strategic Porkkala peninsula, which gave the U.S.S.R. further control of the Gulf of Finland and of the approaches to Leningrad.

This Baltic "window to the west" has been widened by the inclusion of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania in the U.S.S.R. Although their annexation is not recognized by the United States, they are Soviet republics, and their transportation facilities and ports form an additional link between the producing areas of western Russia and the Baltic Sea. Other port facilities were added by Soviet military occupation of the northern part of German East Prussia with the port of Konigsberg (Kaliningrad).

The greatest loss of territory was by Poland, from whom the U.S.S.R. annexed the entire eastern zone. Part of this territory, the Vilno area, was ceded to Lithuania, which had contested Polish possession of this historic Lithuanian capital. The annexation of southeastern Poland, of Ruthenia from Czechoslovakia, and of Northern Bukovina from Rumania gave control of strategic Carpathian passes, and, of greater importance, extended Russian territory over the Carpathians into the Danubian basin of Central Europe. A common border with Hungary was also secured.

In the Balkans, control of the northern distributory channel of the Danube was secured through the return of Bessarabia by Rumania, thus making the U.S.S.R. a Danubian and Balkan power. This enabled her to hold the key position on the Danubian River Commission, from which all nonriparian nations, particularly Great Britain and the United States, were excluded in 1948.

Through these territorial gains, the Soviet Union won an ice-free Arctic port, increased access to the Baltic Sea and the North European Plain, advanced into the Danubian basin, and secured a control point at the mouth of the Danube, as well as extending frontiers to Norway and Hungary. These are indeed significant geopolitical gains.

Territorial Losses of Germany and Italy

In contrast to the westward territorial advance of the Soviet Union, Germany and Italy lost all of their holdings in Eastern Europe. Italy's losses were ratified by the Italian Peace Treaty of 1947. But the final

disposition of German territories is legally dependent on conclusion of a German peace treaty with the Allied nations, although German lands have already been absorbed by the Soviet Union and by Poland.

German East Prussia was divided between the Soviet Union and Poland. The northern half, with the port of Königsberg (Kaliningrad) was added to the major Soviet political unit, the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic. In addition, Germany was forced to relinquish an entire strip of eastern Germany, which was placed under the administration of Poland.

As a result of such territorial shifts, Poland has been "moved" bodily westward in comparison to its pre-war position. In the east, Poland had ceded to the U.S.S.R. a 70,000-square-mile zone, thus placing its capital, Warsaw, only a hundred miles from the new eastern border. As compensation, Poland gained control of the southern portion of German East Prussia and of the international port of Danzig. Of even greater importance to Poland was the addition of 39,000 square miles of eastern Germany, which included the valuable industrial district of German Silesia. Thus, although Poland decreased from a total area of 150,000 to 121,000 square miles, its economy has been strengthened by additions of fertile agricultural land, a major industrial district, and the Baltic port of Stettin. Through this westward shift, a new position has been secured on the North European Plain. Expulsion of Germans and resettlement of Poles in the new areas poses a future problem should Germany seek the return of these territories.

Italian holdings in Eastern Europe were similarly lost, but did not involve any significant transfers of population. The predominantly Slavic-populated region of Istria, which was taken over from the Austro-Hungarian Empire after the First World War, is now a part of Yugoslavia. The major Adriatic port of Trieste, an Italian-populated enclave, has been internationalized under the United Nations. But, because of inability to agree on administrative officials, the Free Territory of Trieste is still occupied by British and United States' troops in the northern part and by Yugoslav troops in the southern part.

In the Adriatic, Yugoslavia received the Istrian island group and the smaller strategic islands of Lagosta and Pelagosa. Italy's control of the Strait of Otranto was lessened by cession to Albania of the island of Saseno, which also commands the entrance to the Albanian harbor of Valona. The award to Greece of the entire island group of the Dodecanese in the Aegean Sea severed the final link in the chain of Balkan islands held by Italy, and ended Italy's position as a Balkan power.

Thus Axis defeat resulted in the elimination of Germany and Italy as Eastern European powers. Axis defeat also created another aspect of the new geopolitical situation—Soviet military occupation of Eastern Germany and of Eastern Austria.

Soviet Military Occupation in Germany and Austria

Under the division of Germany into four Allied occupational zones, Eastern Germany and Eastern Austria were placed under Soviet administration. Within these zones, the Berlin and Vienna enclaves were similarly

subdivided. The western borders of these zones have come to mark the real frontiers of Soviet expansion. They are within the "Iron Curtain" of Europe, which separates differing ideologies, because in the Soviet zones Communist governments have come into power. In both countries, valuable agricultural land and industrial districts are included in the Soviet zones, and, from a strategic point of view, the Soviet position on the North European Plain has been extended westward to the Elbe River and further control of the Danubian Gateway has been secured.

Presumably Soviet administration of these areas will be terminated by peace treaties with Germany and Austria. But the full extent of present Soviet control of these territories was evidenced by the events that led to the "Berlin Air Lift." The division of Germany into the "Western" Federal Republic of Germany and the "Eastern" German Democratic Republic has similarly focused attention on the geopolitical significance of the line of occupational demarcation and of the divergence of Eastern and Western occupational policies and philosophies.

The conflict of these divergent philosophies poses a major problem for the German nation, which is also faced with the question of assimilation of the many peoples who have moved into Germany as a result of the serious displacement of population in Eastern Europe.

Effects of Population Movements

The most complicated problem in postwar Eastern Europe is the problem of population displacement. Millions of people suffered the agonies of war and were uprooted and forced to resettle in other areas or to leave Eastern Europe entirely. Mass movements were in progress even before the start of World War II and have continued ever since that time. They were produced by a variety of causes, including fear of Nazi rule and later of Soviet domination, overthrow of governments, military action and destruction, genocide, and forcible expulsion and resettlement. The variety and complexity of migrations makes it difficult even to generalize as to the major effects of such population displacement, although there is no doubt that the predominant trend has been a major Slavic surge westward, due mainly to German losses and subsequent Slavic gains.

Although Germany attempted to expand her ethnic frontiers eastward by deportation of Poles, Jews, and others, even as early as 1939 she had begun to repatriate Germans from the Soviet-held portions of Eastern Europe under a Soviet-German agreement. During the initial period of success, a limited settlement of Germans did take place. But, with German defeat came a mass exodus not only of the newly settled Germans but also of other groups which had previously been long established, such as the Germans who had settled in Rumania in the thirteenth century. The net result was the virtual elimination of Germans in East ern Europe.

The war had almost as strong an effect on the Jews, mainly because of their wholesale extermination by the Nazis. Allied to Nazi persecution were the mass flights overseas and large-scale evacuation to the Soviet Union. In the postwar period, many of those who survived, joined the migrations to Israel, thus further decreas-

ing the Jewish population of Eastern Europe.

To these losses must be added the more complex movement of other peoples. These movements, such as the evacuation of Finns from areas ceded to the U.S.S.R. or of Hungarians from northern Yugoslavia, are too numerous to treat in detail, although they are collectively important because they involved millions of people.

The voids created by these combined losses have been filled, in great part, by Slavic groups. Russian setlement has taken place in all Soviet annexed areas, including parts of the Baltic Republics. Similarly, the portion of Eastern Germany annexed by Poland and the southern part of Eastern Prussia are now Polish populated, primarily through resettlement of Poles from the lost eastern provinces. Thus, these areas were not merely political annexations, but were instead made integral parts of Poland and the U.S.S.R., through colonization and resettlement, even though in certain cases such annexation has not been legally ratified.

The Outlook

The geopolitical changes that have taken place since the opening of World War II are indeed broad and sweeping and are evident in diverse aspects of the East European scene. Their scope ranges from the new political power of both the Soviet Union and of the United States and the new political and economic patterns to territorial shifts and population displacement. Through these changes, a new phase of the history of Eastern Europe has been created, a phase in which the Soviet Union has played a dominant rôle. The Axis defeat set the stage for the westward expansion of Eastern Europe and for new political and demographic alignments.

Temporarily at least, the rôle of Eastern Europe as a buffer zone between Germany and Russia has been greatly altered and the German nation forced to withdraw from the area. But the "fracture zone" still contains many unsettled problems, which may produce just as significant changes in the future affecting both international and local spheres.

A fundamental clash of ideologies has been noted, a clash which has been highlighted by Yugoslavia's refusal to remain in the Soviet sphere of influence. Another major problem is posed by the question as to whether Germany and Italy will accede to their expulsion from the area, or will make future demands for the return of their lost territories. Similarly, on a smaller scale, the return of Vilno to Lithuania may still be unacceptable to the Polish nation, just as cessions of territory by other Eastern European nations may produce later repercussions.

Thus Eastern Europe remains an area of political complexity and of conflict. Seriously affected by World War II, it has been subjected to intense postwar pressures as well. As a vital zone of East-West contact in the postwar crisis, Eastern Europe holds an even more significant part in the future of Europe, and possibly of the world, than it held in the past.

Strategic Importance *of* Communications *in the* Balkan Penninsula

By GEORGE KISH
University of Michigan

COMMUNICATIONS are the key to the Balkan peninsula. In the largely mountainous area that extends from the Danube to the Mediterranean and the Adriatic to the Black Sea there are but few good route-ways, and their control means the control of the peninsula in peace and war.

The northern boundary of the Balkan peninsula may be drawn along the Danube River from its delta on the Black Sea to its junction with the Drava River, one of its principal tributaries. The Drava forms the frontier between Yugoslavia and Hungary, and the valley of that river leads to the area where the Alps and the mountains of the Balkan peninsula form a low mountain mass. These uplands, the mountains of northwesternmost Yugoslavia, separate the Balkan peninsula from the adjacent areas of Austria and of Italy. In the west and east the waters of the Adriatic and Black Seas, in the south the Mediterranean Sea form clear-cut boundaries. Within these limits, most of the land is mountainous and hilly. In the western part of the peninsula the limestone and sandstone ranges of the Dinaric Mountains form a high and difficult barrier between the shores of the Adriatic and the Danube Valley. Further south, these mountains are continued by those of Albania and Greece, forming a similarly formidable obstacle to west-east travel across the Balkan peninsula, except where the deep cleavage of the Gulfs of Patras and Corinth penetrate from the west coast clear to the neighborhood of Athens.

In the eastern part of the Balkan peninsula vast mountain arcs occupy a large part of the total area. From the Danube River near Belgrade, the Yugoslav capital, two great mountain systems sweep southeastward. The Stara Planina system, the more northerly of the two, runs eastward to the Black Sea, and separates the valley of the Danube from the valley of the Maritza, the principal river of Bulgaria. The Rhodope system runs first southward, forming the boundary between Bulgaria and Yugoslavia, then turns east, and separates the Maritza Valley from the Mediterranean coast.

These mountain masses, and the river valleys that traverse them or separate them, determine to a large extent the course of communications. In the north, the valleys of the Danube and its main tributaries, the Drava and Sava Rivers, form a west-east land route, interrupted, however, by the narrows of the Danube, called "Iron Gates," east of Belgrade, and by the swampy and marshy bottomlands along the lower Danube. As a waterway on the other hand, the Danube is of considerable significance, and it carries much of the trade of the coun-

tries controlling its banks, of Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, and Romania.

Between the mountains of the western Balkans, the Dinaric, Albanian, and western Greek uplands, and the Stara Planina and Rhodope systems, a major "trench," lying in a north-southerly direction, rivals the Danube valley as a land route of the first importance. The northern part of this "trench" is formed by the Morava River, a tributary of the Danube; the southern part by the Vardar River, draining to the Aegean Sea, in northern Greece. When one realizes that the Morava valley and the valley of the Maritza are separated only by a low pass, the full significance of that passageway appears. It serves not only as the principal connecting link between the Danube valley and Greece, but also as a west-east route, connecting the valley of the Danube with that of the Maritza and with Istanbul and the Turkish Straits (the passage from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean).

A brief glance at a map of the Balkans will reveal that communications in the eastern half of the peninsula, and along its northern boundary are incomparably easier than in the western portions. There, the imposing barrier of the parallel ranges between the coast and the valleys of the Danube and Morava Rivers was seldom crossed in the past, except in its central part, in Albania. There a Roman road followed a narrow and inhospitable river valley to the very heart of the western Balkan mountains, to reach thence the port of Salonika on the east coast, and the great city of Constantinople. Until the building of railroads, the mountain barrier of the west coast kept the coastlands and the interior well apart. Further east, on the other hand, the great north-south and northwest-southeast routes of the Danube, Morava, Vardar, and Maritza valleys saw armies and traders, migrations of whole nations and lonely travellers as well, move along the well-trod, dusty roads.

The present day distribution of population in the Balkan peninsula corresponds rather closely to the general outline of the natural route-ways. There is a sharp contrast between the sparsely inhabited mountains of the west and east, and the valleys and plains near the rivers, where the greater part of the population is concentrated. Only a small part of the Balkan lands is fit for farming, these being concentrated almost entirely in the river valleys and in small coastal plains. Outside of these only a few mining settlements and small farming centers in the intermontane basins represent population concentrations of any significance. The network of communications, therefore, represents first of all an attempt to link the principal population centers together.

A second factor, determining the nature of the communications network and often overriding considerations based on economic needs, is the political and strategic factor. In the Balkans, as nearly everywhere in Europe, communications, whether railroads or highways, are always subject to considerations of political and military nature. National defense, national prestige, the need to reach a seaport, these are frequently the decisive factors considered in the building of means of communications. A good example is provided by the Danube. For nearly 600 miles, from the city of Belgrade to the delta of the river, only one railroad bridge connects the oppo-

site banks. Where the Danube forms the boundary between Yugoslavia and Romania and between Bulgaria and Romania only ferries provide a means of crossing the river. The only bridge connects the banks of the lower Danube in Romania, where no political or military motives need be considered.

Finally, there is the influence of the land itself; the difficulties encountered by builders of railroads and highways especially in the more remote and inhospitable mountain-lands, where torrential streams, narrow gorges, sudden floods, steep slopes, and all manner of other obstacles have often prevented the construction of modern means of communications. The western mountains of the Balkan peninsula are a good example of this: from the Yugoslav port of Rijeka (formerly Fiume) in the north to the southernmost tip of Greece, a distance of nearly one thousand miles, only four railroads reach the west coast. Of these only two, built in the far north, are standard-gauge lines; the other two are narrow-gauge, and the distance between the northern narrow-gauge railroad, in Yugoslavia, and the southern one, in Greece, is nearly 450 miles.

Communications in the Balkans depend largely on railroads. There are very few good all-weather highways, and most of the Balkan rivers, with the exception of the Danube, are too rapid, or too shallow, or both to carry any barge traffic.

The railroads of the Balkan peninsula are divided between standard and narrow-gauge lines. In Yugoslavia and Greece most of the railroads are standard-gauge in the eastern, narrow-gauge in the western regions; the majority of the Bulgarian railroads, and the single line in Turkey, are standard-gauge. In Albania there are only two short rail lines, both narrow-gauge.

The structure of the railroad net of the Balkan peninsula is relatively simple. The principal west-east line runs across the northern and central part of the peninsula. It connects Austria, Italy, and Hungary with northwest Yugoslavia, the valley of the Sava River. Following that river, this trunk line runs through the regional centers of western Yugoslavia: Ljubljana and Zagreb, capitals, respectively, of the Slovenian and Croatian republics of Yugoslavia, and follows the Sava valley southeastward to Belgrade, the federal capital. From Belgrade, the line turns southward, along the Morava River, leaves that river at the city of Nish, and follows the Nishava River, a tributary of the Morava, to within a short distance of the Bulgarian frontier. Crossing the Bulgarian frontier through the low Dragoman Pass, the rail line reaches Sofia, the Bulgarian capital, in the midst of the fertile Sofia Basin, and continues thence eastward, to the valley of the Maritza River. It follows the Maritza to the old Turkish city of Edirne, then turns sharply eastward, and ends at Istanbul.

This major west-east line is connected with the Bulgarian seaports of Stalin (Varna), and Burgas. Another important line runs from Turkish territory westward, across northern Greece, to the Greek port of Salonika.

The principal north-south railroad line of the peninsula connects Belgrade and the Danube valley with the Mediterranean. It follows the Morava southward, but instead of turning east

at Nish, it continues along the river to the low pass at the town of Kumanovo. Through that pass the Vardar valley is reached, and the railroad follows the river to Salonika. The line then turns south, and runs through the small plains of eastern Greece, ending at Athens, the Greek capital.

Until the 1920's the Belgrade-Salonika railroad was the only north-south line of the Balkan peninsula. To this day, it remains the most important one, because there is as yet no direct link between Bulgaria and Greece, in spite of their long common boundary. (A Bulgarian rail line runs south from Sofia to within 30 miles of the Greek railroad, but has no connection with it!) Between the two world wars, however, the Yugoslav government, remembering the serious difficulties caused by its poor communications in the First World War, built a second line, paralleling the main north-south line along much of its length. This line follows a natural route-way parallel to the Morava-Vardar trench, but lying to the west of it, and consisting of the valleys of tributary streams of those two rivers. From Lapovo, near Belgrade, in the north to Skopje in the south this new railroad duplicates the main, Belgrade-Athens line.

The western mountains of the Balkan peninsula presented serious obstacles to the railroad builder. The necessity of creating good communications between the ports of the west coast and the interior were a sufficiently strong incentive, however, to build the first of these railroads, the line from Zagreb to Rijeka, then known as Fiume, before World War I. After that war, a second transversal line was constructed from Zagreb to the Yugoslav port of Split.

The narrow-gauge line from the Sava valley in the north, to Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, and to the port of Dubrovnik (then Ragusa) was built during the period of Austrian rule, in the last years of the 19th century. When Bosnia became part of Yugoslavia, after World War I, the city of Sarajevo was connected with the Zagreb-Split railroad to the northwest, and with Belgrade to the northeast, thus extending the railway net in this remote part of the country. At the time of writing, the line from Sarajevo to the Adriatic port of Dubrovnik is reported to have reached the shores of Lake Skutari, on the Yugoslav-Albanian border.

The railroads of Greece, outside of the Athens-Salonika line, and of its continuation northeast to the Turkish frontier, are mostly short spurs connecting the main line with more remote cities and towns of importance. There is no rail line across northern Greece to the west coast, but a narrow-gauge line runs from Athens westward, following the south shore of the Gulf of Corinth, to the port of Patrai (Patras) and describing a loop across the heart of southern Greece, returns to Athens.

In summary, it may be said that the railroad network of the Balkan peninsula is very loosely woven, and there are large areas as yet inaccessible by rail. Maintenance is not always adequate, and the rolling stock: engines, passenger, and freight cars, have not yet been completely repaired after the ravages of World War II and of its aftermath. In Yugoslavia and Greece particularly destruction was very heavy: there was not a single bridge

or viaduct left intact on the Greek railroads in 1945, at the end of the war. There are, however, other difficulties obstructing the smooth working of the railroads, principally of a political nature. The relationships between the Balkan countries are not always cordial, and passport and custom formalities take up considerable time on international traffic.

As far as the highway system of the Balkans is concerned, it is far from adequate to cope with the task imposed upon it. To be sure, material for road building is easy to find, and a relatively large proportion of the roads of the Balkan countries is gravelled. But the problem of maintenance is very serious, since there is very little road machinery available. Funds of the central government for road upkeep are scanty, and the roads suffer from neglect. Prior to World War II there was only one through highway on the peninsula, the London-Istanbul road; it was assumed that for most of its length, passing from the Yugoslav-Hungarian frontier through Belgrade and Sofia to Istanbul, it was hard-surfaced. The heavy demands of the Balkan campaigns of 1941, the guerrilla warfare during the period of enemy occupation, the campaigns of liberation in 1944-1945, and the civil war in Greece imposed a very heavy burden on this and all other roads. Reconstruction proceeds slowly, but there are signs that given a period of relative peace, the network of roads will be back to its 1939 status within a short time.

Throughout the history of the Balkans, from the period of Greek and Macedonian rule in the 5th-4th century B. C. to the present time the pattern of communications remained unchanged. The great west-east route along the Danube-Morava-Nishava-Maritza line and the north-south route from the Danube along the Morava and the Vardar to the east coast of Greece are still of key importance. In Roman times, as today, there were few ways of crossing the western mountain barrier to the interior. Belgrade, where the Danube and Sava routes from the north and northwest join to follow the Morava southward; Istanbul, where the road from Asia Minor crosses the Strait of the Bosphorus, and continues westward to the Maritza; Salonika, the great knot of Greek routes from the south, from the west, from the east, and the most important interior center of the Balkans; Macedonia, the upper Vardar basin, retained their significance through the centuries.

A brief glance at the major military campaigns of the last forty years in the Balkans will bring out the importance of these centers. During the Balkan wars of 1912-1913, after the Balkan nations defeated Turkey, the principal cause disagreement was the disposition of Macedonia, coveted by Serbs, Greeks, and Bulgarians alike. In the course of World War I, the first phase of military operations in the Balkans consisted of the Austrian and German attempts to control the Belgrade region and the Morava and Nishava valleys, because they assured the Central Powers a through railroad to their Turkish and Bulgarian allies. The failure of the Germans and Austrians to dislodge the Allies (France and Great Britain) from the southern edge of Macedonia and from the port of Salonika gave the Allies a foothold in the Balkans, and an opportunity to renew their offensive from there, lead-

ing to the collapse of Bulgaria in 1918.

In World War II, the fact that Yugoslavia and Greece were on the Allied, Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, and Italy on the Axis side exposed the first two nations to attack from west, east, and north. The brief German and Bulgarian campaigns of 1941 in Yugoslavia and Greece aimed only at control over the Danube-Sava and Morava-Vardar lines of roads and railroads, for with the collapse of Yugoslav resistance there all but the remote mountains of the country fell into Axis hands. In Greece, after the initial failure of the Italian armies to break through the nearby inaccessible mountains along the Greek-Albanian border, the German thrust along the Salonika-Athens railroad sealed the fate of Greek resistance.

The position in the Balkans at the present time is strongly reminiscent of that in 1941. Yugoslavia, a Communist country that broke its alliance with the Soviet Union in 1948, is considered an outcast and an enemy by the U.S.S.R. and its satellites: Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, and Albania. Greece, having after a long struggle overcome its Communist guerrillas, is on the side of the Western powers, but it, too, faces two Soviet satellites along its northern border: Albania and Bulgaria. The main difference between 1941 and 1951, and an important one, is that Yugoslavia is accessible from the north, the British-occupied zone of Austria and from Italy, by trunk railroads and fair roads, and its west coast faces Italy, a possible friend, certainly not a definite foe.

From a military point of view, Balkan communications still revolve around control of a few key routes and centers. From the point of view of peaceful intercourse and trade, the railroads and highways are still far from adequate to insure an adequate distribution of goods throughout the greater part of the peninsula. One of the main tasks ahead for the governments and peoples of the Balkan states is to build the arteries of peace, and the carriers for defense.

NEW ENGLAND STATES TEACHERS' AGENCY, Inc.
120 BOYLSTON STREET Hubbard 2-0549 BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS
Under New Management Since May, 1951
Discriminating service for administrators. Exceptional openings for qualified teachers desiring opportunities in public schools, independent schools and colleges.
"An Agency Organized by Educators to Serve Educators"

NEWCOMB & GAUSS CO.
Book - Job - Commercial
PRINTERS
No. 1 CITY HALL AVENUE SALEM, MASS.

Blueprint *for the* New Japan

By HOWARD H. MARTIN
University of Washington

IT has long been the fashion to ascribe great virtue to the expeditions of 1853 and 1854 by which Commodore Matthew Perry and his trade promotion staff "opened up" Japan almost at cannon's mouth. The reluctant men of Yeddo were thus forcibly converted to active participation in world commerce. Living in feudal isolation in three subtropical islands off the east coast of Asia, a nation of 31,500,000 had evolved a compact insular culture needing no contact with the outside. Their world was encompassed by the large main island of Honshu flanked on the south by smaller Kyushu and Skikoku across the narrow Inland Sea. The north island of Yezo, or Hokkaido, was an unsettled wilderness people only by scattered groups of the aboriginal Ainu. Korea and China were far away and aroused no interest.

After a century of attempted territorial expansion in the outside world of industry, commerce, and power politics, the Japanese are today back on the same four islands reconstructing their national economy. Four years of widespread and disastrous war and six years of Occupation have come to an end. The population now numbers 84 million in the same area of 135,600 square miles. And, after taking stock of their resources, several thousands of modern Japanese Perrys are ranging the globe in an attempt to open up trade on a broader basis with a reluctant world.

Rise of Commerce and Industry

The newly awakened Japan of 1854 moved ahead steadily, improving commercial contacts and copying the technical methods of the West. The silks and brocades made in small shops on hand looms were supplemented then far exceeded by machine-made cotton goods, eventually sold in millions of yards throughout the world. Blast furnaces, rolling mills, shipyards, tinplate factories, pulp mills and rayon plants were added. By the late 1920's Japan emerged as the recognized workshop of Asia and as an industrial rival to the leading western nations.

In the drive for world trade full use was made of efficient but low cost labor. Raw silk, pottery and chinaware, toys, gadgets and paper goods flowed steadily to international markets. Merchandise of all descriptions reached its destination by means of an expanded merchant fleet which brought back the wide range of raw materials needed by industry and the increasing quantity of foodstuffs consumed in Japan.

Fortified by industrial prosperity the new Japan began to seek a larger sphere of influence in Asia. Pride in industrial achievement was paralleled by a desire for added prestige and power. Long on population but short on foods and basic materials, Japan made this situation one of the excuses for embarking upon a policy of territorial expansion. A big Navy and a

powerful Army became part of the drive for supremacy in Asia.

Acquisition of an Overseas Empire

Japanese imperialism is in part an outgrowth of the European colonial system in Asia. What the Dutch could do in the East Indies, the British in Hong Kong and Malaya, the French in Indo-China, the United States in the Philippines, the aspiring Japanese believed they could also accomplish as rulers in some of the under-developed areas of the Far East. Following the successful Sino-Japanese war of 1894-95 and the acquisition of Formosa, the national policy crystallized rapidly into one of imperialism, to be implemented by the acquisition of additional territory. The Russo-Japanese War was won with ease in 1904. Under the Treaty of Portsmouth Japan obtained the south half of Sakhalin and renamed it Karafuto. Korea, Micronesia, and the Kwangtung Leased Territory were secured with little difficulty and added to the growing empire. A still more daring project, the Manchurian Incident of 1931 was unopposed by the western powers. By 1932 the empire included a varied and highly valuable group of territories.

1895: Formosa, acquired after the Sino-Japanese war

1905: Karafuto, acquired from Russia after the Russo-Japanese War

1905: Kwangtung Leased Territory, acquired from Russia

1910: Korea annexed, after being a protectorate since 1905

1914: Marianas, Marshalls, Carolines, German held prior to World War I; mandated to Japan 1919

1931: Manchuria seized from China and set up as the puppet state of Manchuquo.

In these overseas possessions Japan controlled sources of foodstuffs and raw materials as well as markets for Japanese goods. Equally important, they offered considerable scope for colonial officials and administrators as well as opportunities for private enterprise in resource exploitation, transportation, banking, commerce, and even special types of manufacture. The aluminum made in Formosa, the coal and steel of Manchuria, made contributions to the expanding empire. The overseas possessions were integrated into the economy of the main islands and were external evidence of growing Japanese power.

The military clique which through the Emperor dominated the government was the leading exponent of aggressive imperialism and after careful preparation an undeclared war in North China was launched in July, 1937. By 1938 most of North China and all of the major coastal cities were in the hands of the invader. Unlike previous "incidents" this conflict bogged down, with widespread guerilla fighting and no settlement in sight. Despite all Japanese efforts Free China continued to function from Chungking in the interior.

War in the Pacific

In spite of the stalemate in China, Japan's drive for complete domination in Asia came late in 1941. Most of the Powers having interests in the area had been immobilized by the European war. France and the Netherlands had been overrun by German armies and were in no position to guard their holdings in Indo-China and the East Indies. Britain's entire

strength was concentrated on the vital defense of the endangered home islands. The United States, neither at war nor prepared for war, was deeply involved in supporting the British effort. At this opportune time an all-out struggle in the Pacific was touched off by a surprise attack on Hawaii, December 7, 1941.

In its early stages Japan's war of expansion was successful beyond expectation. The crippling of the American fleet at Pearl Harbor, together with the sinking of two major British warcraft in the western Pacific, left that area open and unprotected. The carefully planned and well-timed offensive rolled rapidly southward. Within a matter of months the Philippines, Hong Kong, Singapore and Malaya, Burma, the East Indies and other outlying islands were taken by sea or land. Japanese control of the Pacific spread out like a great fan, its southernmost edge including bases on New Guinea within easy range of the Australian mainland.

At the peak of its power in 1942 Japan was exercising full or partial control over 3,000,000 square miles of territory, with a total population of 600,000,000. The long dream of manifest destiny in Asia had reached its climax.

Although this great arc of islands, as well as much of the occupied Asiatic mainland, was thinly held, the distances were so great and the demands of a two-front war were so heavy that for three years the United States was unable to concentrate sufficient power in the Pacific to do more than fight holding actions and acquire strategic bases for the future. With the successful conclusion of the European war, full attention was turned to the Pacific area. Moving northward by way of the Philippines, full mobilization for an all-out attack on the Japanese home islands was in preparation when the explosion of the first two atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki brought the war to an unexpected close. The Japanese High Command announced its capitulation on August 14, 1945.

Territorial Redistribution

The end of the war was followed by immediate withdrawal of Japanese forces from all invaded and occupied lands. All of the territories acquired by Japan since 1894 were redistributed. Karafuto (the south half of Cakhalin) and the Kurile island chain stretching from the tip of Hokkaido to Kamchatka were awarded to the U.S.S.R. Formosa and Manchuria were to be returned to China, and Korea was guaranteed its independence.

De facto transfers of these territories were made after the surrender to be regarded as final when the Treaty of Peace was signed and ratified. Before that time, however, conditions had changed, the United Nations had been organized, and a new struggle for power was raging in Eastern Asia. The Mandated Islands (the Marshalls, Marianas, and the Carolines) were put under United Nations trusteeship, with the United States as administrator. A comparable procedure was aplied to the Ryukyu chain, with strategic Okinawa in its center. Russia entered Manchuria immediately following the war. The promised Korean independence ended in a bitter, costly and inconclusive war between the South and the North, the former supported by the United Nations, the lat-

ter openly by Red China and covertly by Russia.

The Japanese territorial situation, however, was clear; only the four main islands remained. With the returning troops, colonial officials, banking and transportation personnel, as well as the many thousands of Japanese nations who had been living in Korea, Manchuria and Karafuto, the overcrowded character of the homeland was even more apparent. The high postwar birth rate resulting in a net increase of well over a million per year also made the disparity between population and resources more acute. In the beginning the Occupation was obliged to provide millions of dollars worth of foodstuffs in order to ward off starvation. Even at best the average caloric intake was reduced far below the point of work efficiency.

Six Years of Occupation: 1945-51

The occupation of Japan was entrusted to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers who, together with his staff and advisors, was soon widely known as SCAP. During the ensuing six years almost every phase of Japanese life, political, economic, and social, was directly or indirectly controlled by SCAP. In addition to the general duties of war occupation, SCAP was given a directive to carry out various reform measures. The warmaking power of Japan was to be destroyed, including the Navy and all military installations, as well as steel, chemical and other industries with a war potential. As part of the military endeavor, the merchant marine was on the suspect list. The Zaibatsu, those great family combines which included Mitsui, Mitsubishi, Sumitomo, Yasuda, and Asano, were regarded as tools of the militarists. Reparations were to be paid for damages to some of the invaded countries. During the white heat of war it had even been suggested that a defeated Japan should be restricted to manufacturing for local needs only, and largely excluded from future international trade.

Fortunately these extreme views were not implemented. Demilitarization was carried out promptly and thoroughly, and there was some dismantling of heavy industry. In a manner reminiscent of the "trust-busting" fervor in the United States forty years ago, the Zaibatsu were split up into numerous smaller units. A new Japanese constitution was written, Emperor worship replaced by a more democratic system, full suffrage extended to women, and a program of land reform inaugurated. Some misguided attempts were made to impose the American concept of democracy more rapidly than it could be assimilated.

To an increasing degree the Occupation became concerned with economic rehabilitation. The cost of the occupation was necessarily high; in 1948 it took $300,000,000 to maintain the population on a relief basis although by U. S. standards the minimum needs of a Japanese family were modest. It was realized that in place of stifling production, it should be increased. Careful surveys into every phase of Japanese endeavor became the basis for a better policy. To survive and become solvent and self-supporting, the full use of every resource, natural and human, was essential.

Rehabilitation was further accelerated by events in Asia. The U.S.S.R. had taken an unexpectedly aggressive

stand in Manchuria and North Korea, and the rapid spread of communism in China was soon followed by the civil war in Korea. The sudden intervention of Red China in Korea accentuated the danger of unpreparedness in the Far East. Any withdrawal of Occupation forces from a disarmed Japan might leave a vacuum of power, thus opening the way for Red aggression. Accordingly, the new Japan should be strong enough to support itself and powerful enough to protect itself with a minimum of outside aid.

The Treaty of Peace

The varied forces gathering momentum between 1945 and 1951 complicated the task of treaty making. As finaly drawn the treaty was one of reconciliation, devoid of harsh provisions, and intended to restore Japan to maximum strength and including the right to rearm. Except for some minor agreements, reparations were virtually abandoned. After preliminary discussions with the other United Nations, the signing took place in San Francisco, September 8, 1951. Forty-nine of the fifty-two attending nations signed the Treaty, only the U.S.S.R., Poland and Czechoslovakia refusing. India and Burma did not attend the conference.

At the same time the United States signed three Security Pacts: one with Japan providing for bases and the exclusive right to station armed forces in the country; second, a Mutual Defense Treaty with Australia and New Zealand; and third, a similar defense treaty with the Philippines. The latter two gave added assurance to three western Pacific countries who were uneasy at the prospect of a rearmed and possibly resurgent Japan.

The Peace Treaty was generally regarded with satisfaction in Japan. Together with the Security Pact it was promptly ratified by both houses of the Diet and signed by the Emperor on November 19, 1951. When ratified by other signatory nations it will become effective, giving Japan complete sovereignty in the family of nations. A commercial treaty with the United States is also under negotiation in the hope that normal economic relations can be resumed early in 1952.

Population and the Food Supply

The Japanese population has been increasing steadily since the opening of the country to world commerce. By 1920, coincident with rapid industrialization, it reached 55 million, 63 million in 1930, and 71 million in 1940. Since then it has risen sharply to 84 million in 1951, an upturn of 17.4%.

Part of this high net increase is due to the drop in the death rate because of advances in science and medicine, while the birth rate remained high. It is a common saying that Japan has achieved an Occidental death rate while retaining an Oriental birth rate. The present accepted population curve projected into the future indicates 92 million for 1960, and 100 million by 1970.

Population increase has not been matched by a comparable rise in food production. The lag in food output of the Main Islands was appreciable in the early twentieth century, giving impetus to the import of rice and soy beans from Korea, the growing of surplus rice and sugar cane in Formosa, and the shipping of soybean products from North China and Manchuria. Despite intensification on the farms and wider fishing activities every-

where the country soon had a food deficit.

Careful surveys made by Occupation specialists substantiate the Japanese viewpoint that food possibilities at home are quite inadequate to support the growing population. The present intensive land use, including double cropping where the climate is suitable, and maximum of labor on small plots seems to leave little opportunity for an increase in yields. Possibilities for food increase above the prewar level are:

1. Improvement in tillage methods, including soil management, drainage, flood control, erosion control, better seeds, etc.

2. More commercial fertilizers. The Japanese farmers have never at any time had sufficient fertilizers for maximum crop output.

3. Addition to the cultivated area. This includes the reclamation of certain unused uplands, and the possible diking and drainage of river margins and shallow seas.

4. Shift from a lower to a higher intensity of land use. This might include the change of certain lands from grass and fodder production to more intensive use for food crops.

5. Scientific research, including plant introduction, plant breeding, closer crop selection for local soil and climate, insect and pest control, etc.

6. Agriculture and fishery research, for sustained yield and a higher return of fishery products. Because of many unknown factors, the maximum possible increase in fish would be 10%.

The full use of all these measures would bring a possible maximum upturn in foodstuffs amounting to 25% by 1960; a more reasonable estimate of increase would be 10-15%. The population increase by 1960 would be well in excess of this figure so it is apparent that Japan must continue to import not less than 20% of its food requirements.

Land Reform Measures

In an attempt to raise the income and improve the living standards of farmers, the Occupation sponsored a far-reaching program of land reform. Under a 1945 directive from SCAP the new Tokyo Government embarked upon a program of land buying from non-operating owners. The prevailing landlord-tenant system was an outgrowth of feudal conditions and the fragmentation of holdings had become so excessive that the purchase of 5 million acres involved the handling of some 30 million separate parcels of land. This was sold to bona fide farmers, mainly former tenants, on liberal terms with long-time payments. In 1946 owner-farmers had been operating only 46% of the cultivated area of Japan, but by 1951 this figure had been raised to 89%.

For lands still farmed under tenancy, lowering the legal rent from the customary 50% to a maximum of 25% has improved conditions for many small tenants. Under the reform program the cooperative marketing associations have been strengthened and new agricultural experiment stations established. Since Japanese farm workers in 1951 numbered 37,800,000, a large proportion of the Japanese population have already received direct or indirect benefits from land reform. Greater operating efficiency under the new system is also expected to increase total crop production. Replanning and consolidating

the fragmented holdings into more economic units has raised the total acreage under cultivation.

Hokkaido—The Northern Frontier

In comparison with the densely peopled plains of Honshu, the north island of Hokkaido is still an uncrowded land. With the possible exception of the Hakkodate area, none of the Hokkaido plains is fully occupied. The capital city of Sapporo in the fertile Ishikari Basin has a widely spaced appearance, in sharp contrast to the close packed towns of Old Japan. With a population density of less than one hundred per square mile, Hokkaido is often suggested as an outlet for the South. Since the loss of Manchuria, Korea, and other Empire territories, Hokkaido is the only potential migration area now under Japanese control.

The climate, similar in rainfall, temperature and growing season to that of New England, is unsuitable for many standard sub-tropical crops of the south. The new immigrant is often dismayed by his inability to grow two crops per season, and by the predominance of the coarser cereals and root crops as well as by the long and severe winters.

The central plain of Hokkaido is suitable for one-crop rice of quick maturing varieties. It is even better adapted to wheat, barley, beans, buckwheat, sugar beets, and white potatoes, and dairying has begun in a small way. By changing to northern-type crops and building warmer houses, immigrants can find more elbow room in Hokkaido than elsewhere. The timber and pulpwood of the mountain core, the coal of the Ishikari Basin and the abundant coastal fisheries (herring, sardine, bottom fish, seaweed) give employment to many workers. The island can absorb a limited number of frontier-minded veterans and younger sons.

Barriers to Migration

Migration to less densely peopled countries offers scant relief to population pressure in Japan. The empty lands of the world are few, and still fewer of them are open to Japanese. Australia, at present engaged in a carefully screened migration of selected north Europeans, still adheres to its White Australia policy. South American countries such as Brazil and Peru which have admitted many Japanese colonists and laborers, will probably be open again after ratification of the Treaty. Other nations admit no Japanese or have quotas which are negligible. Western New Guinea, still under Dutch control, has been suggested as an empty area suitable for Oriental migration and development; although eastern New Guinea has not been attractive to European settlers, the Australian government still adheres to its non-Oriental policy.

The United States has modified its Oriental Exclusion Act to admit Chinese on a quota basis but has no similar provision for Japanese, despite the fact that Americans of Japanese ancestry in Hawaii and elsewhere have made outstanding records as citizens. War brides are now arriving from Japan in small numbers and it is to be hoped that immigrants in general can be put on a basis comparable to that of the Chinese. This would admit a very limited number and while it would make scant difference to the economy of Japan, their

acceptance here on a quota basis would be of great psychological value.

The Five Year Plan

As early as 1947 it had become apparent that the concept of a non-industrial, non-commercial Japan was incompatible with return to national solvency. It was also realized that an indefinite subsidy from the United States for foodstuffs, running into many millions of dollars annually, was undesirable from the standpoint of both nations. Accordingly, a more realistic policy of industrial-commercial rehabilitation evolved. The Tokyo Government, asked to draw up a program for the attainment of self sufficiency within the shortest possible period, presented a Five Year Plan of Economic Rehabilitation which was approved by SCAP.

Careful surveys had brought out the facts of continued food shortage and a nutritional level far below the standards of health and efficiency. As a result, the primary goal of the plan was a return to the average standard of living which prevailed during the 1930-34 period, a modest objective since in Japan, as in the rest of the world, those were depression years. The national deficits in home grown foodstuffs were recognized as probably permanent. Although the attainment of higher agricultural yields was urged, the plan stressed the rebuilding of the manufactural and commercial structure to a point where it could finance the regular importation of rice, wheat and other badly needed foods.

The working basis of this program included large loans from the United States for rebuilding and modernizing mines, factories, power plants and transportation facilities. A new merchant marine, built in the main at local shipyards, was to expedite the flow of inbound foods and materials, as well as to provide considerable employment in the carrying trades. It is of high significance as indicating the change in American policy that the approved plan for a tenfold increase of Japanese foreign trade over 1947 was regarded as an absolute necessity for successful rehabilitation. The tentative date set for this achievement was 1952.

Revival of Manufacture

The early Occupation policy of restricted heavy industry was gradually modified until by 1950 it was on its way to recovery. The allied heavy industries (steel, coal, shipbuilding, machinery) tend to be concentrated at opposite ends of the Inland Sea, the Yawata district of northern Kyushu and the Kobe-Osaka area. At the peak of the Pacific war Japan's blast furnaces and rolling mills turned out nearly 8 million tons of steel. Somewhat handicapped by longer and costlier ore and coal hauls, including coking coal from the U. S. Pacific Coast, the steel plants of Japan are nevertheless now back to 4 million ton capacity.

Shipbuilding stopped at the end of the war. Its recovery began with the need for small fishing and coastal craft and the salvage and repair of sunken vessels; later a growing number of medium sized freighters and tankers came off the ways. The refitted yards now have a capacity of 800,000 tons annually. In spite of high costs the builders are working full time on vessels for foreign account and on the revived merchant marine. The prewar merchant marine of about 6 million

tons had been reduced to 1 million at the time of surrender, most of which was obsolete and has since been scrapped. The blueprint for the new and more efficient fleet calls for 2,600,000 tons by the end of 1952. Shipbuilding has thus become an integral part of the overall plan for world trade.

Other types of industry are concentrated in six to eight locations along the Inland Sea or in the Tokyo-Yokohama area. Machinery and machine tools are making a steady recovery, and chemicals, fertilizers, and the non-ferrous metals have passed their prewar mark.

In the consumer goods industries, the cotton spindles and looms of Osaka are active, both for home sale and for a reviving export trade in southern and southeast Asia. The upturn has been excellent in optical and electrical goods, dinner ware, pottery, and plastics. The Korean war also stimulated certain industries; factories, shipyards and repair plants have been running full time to augment the United Nations war effort. One of Japan's great assets is its skilled labor, familiar with loom, lathe and drill press.

Raw Materials for Industry

Most of the reviving industries of Japan are faced with two major deficit problems: a need for large quantities of raw materials as well as appreciable amounts of power fuels. Imports to meet these deficits fall into four broad categories.

(1) The materials for heavy industry which include iron ore, steel scrap, the ferro-alloys, copper, and most other metals; two-thirds of the iron ore, four-fifths of the lead, and approximately 100% of all fero-alloys and aluminum must now come from overseas. The ore reserves of Japan (Northeast Honshu and Hokkaido) will probably last about ten years. Cut off from former sources of iron ore in Manchuria and North China, the Japanese steel makers are buying abroad. Several hundred thousand tons of Nevada iron ore has been purchased for shipment via San Francisco to the Japanese blast furnaces.

(2) Of the power fuels, coal is in adequate supply, the best mines being in northern Kyushu and central Hokkaido. The prewar production of 55 million tons per year was cut in half following the surrender. Reserves are adequate but not of high quality. Inability to obtain good coking coal from Manchuria and from North China has been a manufactural handicap. During the past year many shipments of high priced coal (mainly for coking) have been made from American west coast ports. Some petroleum is produced along the northwest coast of Honshu but the annual output of 2 million barrels is insufficient for national needs. Japan is normally an importer of petroleum and its products.

(3) The textile fibers, particularly cotton, are long-time needs. Since no cotton is grown in Japan, it is one of the standard items in the import trade. Early in 1951 Japan again became active in the Brazilian market by resuming her prewar position as the leading buyer of Sao Paulo cotton. Wool is produced at home in only minor quantities; the woolen mills need 500,000 to 600,000 bales of wool annually, most of it coming from Australia.

(4) Miscellaneous materials include rubber, chemicals, fertilizers, timber, wood pulp, etc. The loss of

Karafuto as a source of timber and pulp has been keenly felt.

In addition to these basics, many types of producers goods, including machine tools, machinery, automotive vehicles and parts, are in great demand to assist in the rebuilding of industry.

Revival of Trade

In an effort to provide employment and expand the national income, SCAP encouraged a limited amount of controlled trade in 1947. Representatives of American firms interested in Japanese goods were allowed to interview manufacturers, sell raw materials and make contracts for purchases on a supervised basis. Under the sponsorship of SCAP goods labeled "Made in Occupied Japan" became quite familiar to American buyers. Other foreign markets were opened and in 1950 Japan became the leading world exporter of textiles. During the same year Japanese dinnerware sold in the United States exceeded 8 million dollars.

The active return of Japanese enterprisers to the foreign market began in 1951. In June-July a Trade Fair was held in Seattle with some 550 Japanese manufacturers and trade associations exhibiting their products and making their own direct contacts with buyers. In addition to characteristic art wares and textiles, the promotions included items such as optical goods, bicycles, sewing machines, chemicals, pulp and paper. Widely advertised in the United States, this Fair drew thousands of friendly and interested visitors.

Large amounts of Japanese steel, cement and building materials have been reaching Australia, with delivery six weeks from time of order; other promotions for Australia include fencing and barbed wire for the sheep and cattle stations, galvanized iron, and electrical equipment. Economic missions have gone to Brazil and other Latin American countries. A lucrative market for cotton goods and light metal manufactures is anticipated in India. The new countries of southeast Asia are in need of machinery, capital goods, and articles of low unit value suitable for peoples with low individual buying power. To facilitate trade relationships, Japanese industry is in a buying as well as a selling position. Southern and eastern Asia is regarded as a source of many materials, including rubber, ferro-alloys, vegetable oils and fibers.

The Tokyo Government has been sending missions abroad to negotiate new trade agreements and is preparing to reopen its consulates. Japanese banks, trading companies, and shipping concerns are appointing foreign representatives and preparing to handle commercial transactions. The gap of ten years is being bridged as rapidly as possible.

In this concerted drive for foreign trade, the shipping firms, in spite of their limited fleets, are establishing regular monthly sailings to selected ports. Four such services now link North America with Japan and there are frequent sailings to South America, Siam, India and Pakistan. In due time Australia, Formosa, Indonesia, and many of the Pacific islands will have regular ship line services. The rich China trade, once an income producer for Japan, remains closed except for the recently permitted export of non-strategic materials, largely cotton goods. Japanese plans for trade

expansion rest mainly on North America and the monsoon lands of southern and eastern Asia.

Conclusion

The over-all blueprint for the Japanese future recognizes both the environmental limitations of the islands, and the skills and aptitudes of the people. Solidly based on past experience, it calls for intensification and refinement of known techniques rather than any major departure into unknown fields.

1. The maximum agricultural production on the Home Islands, using every known scientific method of land use, reclamation and intensification. Hokkaido in particular is under-developed.

2. Development of manufacturing to its fullest extent; this calls for heavy imports of raw materials, the improvement of existing power sources (chiefly coal and waterpower) and the import of extra fuel when necessary.

3. An expanded merchant marine under the Japanese flag, capable of carrying the major share of both imports and exports.

4. An expanded world trade on the most-favored-nation basis which will necessitate the re-establishment of many commercial agencies.

5. Recognition and equality in the family of nations, including full responsibility for the defense of the Homeland.

There is, however, a very real danger that a wave of tariff-raising, prohibitive quotas, and miscellaneous restrictions will close markets, not only in the United States but also in other countries. If unable to restore a profitable trade with the western world, Japan might even be forced into closer economic and political relationships with the Communist eastern world.

To those nations hoping for a peaceful non-aggressive Japan, the unrestrained birth rate, now adding over one million to its population annually, has serious implications. Western philosophy has progressed to the point where it frowns upon unrestrained population if and when it becomes either the reason for a sinking standard of living or the excuse for armed aggression.

A nationwide determination to rehabilitate the national economy is the dominant force in post-war Japan. This determination, mounting steadily during the Occupation, culminated in a surge of activity after the Treaty was signed. A fair and sympathetic evaluation of the Japanese in the first year of their restored sovereignty, must inevitably assign great weight to their intense desire for world equality. Mere political equality will not suffice if there is to be no equality of economic opportunity. To a nation so far advanced in the arts and sciences, so well educated, so skilled in industry and commerce, this is paramount. In Japan it is already being interpreted to mean a free and equal chance to use their own available resources, their well-trained and efficient labor, and raw materials purchased abroad in the open market—use them all in a gigantic effort to regain their former position in world export trade. Pride of race, devotion to country, and tenacity of purpose are all included in the effort not only to restore their former standard of living but to attain once more a high and honorable position among nations.

Economic Status *of* Palestine

By GEORGE D. HUBBARD
Professor Emeritus, Oberlin College

General Statement

PALESTINE is occupied at present by two nations, but that is nothing new for that little area. Before the Hebrews came, in Moses' and Joshua's day, there were more than two. After Solomon's time, 953 B.C., two nations eyed each other distrustfully until the captivity and the dispersion. These were followed by centuries of foreign rule. Today the hope of the Jews is being fulfilled, and they are the occupants and rulers in most of Palestine.

Area. Palestine is a very small area for one modern nation alone. Yet within it, one occupant, the Republic of Israel, has about 8,000 square miles of national domain, and another, the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, has about 3,000 square miles besides 32,000 square miles "beyond Jordan," formerly Transjordan. Boundaries of neither nation have been surveyed so areas are only estimates. Massachusetts has 8,257 square miles, Rhode Island 1,214, and Maine 32,215. These states of our nation are neither economic nor political units as are Israel and Jordan.

The Republic of Israel was established by proclamation May 14, 1948, following a resolution passed by the United Nations in the previous November. Its population, estimated at 1,354,000 late in 1950, is still changing by immigration and by the moving out of Arab refugees. The composition was estimated, 1950, to be 1,184,000 Jews, 120,000 Moslems, 50,000 Christians. The Kingdom of Jordan was established under the Palestine Mandate of Sept. 1, 1922, and won independence by treaty with Britain March 22, 1946. Its government was actually set up May 24, 1950. Jordan's population is estimated at a little less than 1,400,000, ten per cent of whom are refugees, and almost 1,000,000 of whom live in the West Jordan portion.

Most of this paper will be devoted to "Palestine" with its 11,000 square miles and two nations with statistics where possible for both nations. Most of Jordan is arid steppe or desert, and does not furnish food even for all of its livestock. Many of its inhabitants are necessarily nomadic.

Physical Division. The topography depends definitely on the geologic history of the area. There is the great anticlinal fold of limestone extending from the plains of Esdraelon southward and making the axial highlands of Gilboa, Samaria, Judea, Hebron, and Beersheba that play out in the south. This ridge, 1500 to 3500 feet high, is high enough to intercept the winds moving from the Great Sea Inland, lift the air up and cool it so that much of its moisture is condensed out, thereby increasing the rainfall from the sea eastward to the top of the ridge and cutting most of the rain from the lowlands east of the ridge. The Central Highland continues in Galilee north of Esdraelon and develops into

more complicated structures in the mountains of Lebanon and Syria. This ridge is much eroded by the streams and hence is uneven in height and almost nowhere level. The western flank dissected by many little streams and riddled by solution is a hilly belt called in large part the Shephelah or foothills. It abounds in caverns and little wadis.

Down below the hills is the long coastal plain consisting of sediments washed down into the sea by streams and shifted from the south by currents. These sediments, systematically strewn in shallow water from the corner of Egypt and of the Mediterranean Sea northward, constitute the Maritime Plain. It is but a few miles wide at the extreme south, widens to fifteen miles a large part of its length, narrows round the end of Carmel to a few hundred feet, then widens and continues on north into the little state of Lebanon.

East of the central highlands is the Jordan Valley, El Ghor, from the Lebanon mountains toward the Dead Sea, a phenomenon in no sense the work of the Jordan River. When the ridge was folded up through central Palestine a different sort of movement occurred here. A great break in the rocks took place along the eastern side of the valley. The rocks and surface on the east remained elevated as a plateau, while the rocks west of the break were allowed to settle down. They were bent and in places were broken down between the central ridge and the great fault or "break" until in the vicinity of the Dead Sea they were lowered at least 4,000 feet below the eastern plateau. This lowering was less to the south but it continued to the Gulf of Akaba and the Red Sea, whose basins are due to the same sort of phenomena and structure. The bending downward became less and less to the north but was sufficient to carry the surface layers of rock below sea level as far north as Huleh Lake. Lateral streams and the Jordan from the Lebanon mountains washed weathered rock into El Ghor and to date they have made great progress in filling the valley. Beneath the Dead Sea the surface is some 2,600 feet below sea level, and the surface of that salty sea is about 1,275 feet below sea level. The water is over 1,300 feet deep in the northeast portion but shoals in the south to 10-15 feet and in rainy reasons spreads a foot or more in depth over the plains a whole mile south of the usual shoreline.

The Jordan flood plain is higher north of Jericho but only reaches sea level at the border of Huleh Lake. The terraces of valley alluvium occupying much of the valley space show that the valley was once filled much above present river level and was then reëxcavated by the river to its present level. The wash thus removed has been piled into the Dead Sea and has been used to build the Plains of Jericho, really a delta plain. All these items are significant in the economic use of the valley.

Between the coastal plain along the Great Sea and the plains of the Jordan Valley and just north of Carmel and Gilboa is a series of plains, known in the central section, where it has a width of 8-9 miles, as Esdraelon or Megiddo. The eastern section is called the Valley of Jezreel, and here it is one to three miles wide and a little below sea level like the Jordan Valley with which it connects.

East of the Jordan Valley the topog-

raphy rises in steep slopes leading up to the plateau or Eastern Tableland. In the north during Grecian occupation it supported the Decapolis (Ten Cities) from the middle east side of Tiberias south nearly to the Dead Sea; and in the days of the kingdom of Israel and later Judah and Israel it contained, named in order from north to south, Bashan, Gilead, Ammon, Moab, and Edom. The Hauran lay east of Gilead and Decapolis, a lava desert plateau. East of these states along the Jordan border is the great desert of Arabia, which sprawls southward toward the Gulf of Aden 1,500 miles.

South of Palestine proper, which ends at about the middle of the Dead Sea the central ridge flattens out and becomes the Negeb (Negev) or the South land, characterized as the Wilderness of Zin or the desert, beyond Beersheba.

The coast line of Palestine (Mediterranean Sea) is simple and smooth; such a line as would result if a stretch of sea bottom were uplifted and promptly became a coastal plain. The water edge thus lies on gently sloping sea floor. Such a shoreline has no harbors, as one does that is initiated by partial submergence of land roughened by erosion. On such a coast harbors occur in river mouths, but the Palestine coastline has no natural harbors at river mouths, so breakwaters have been built at Jaffa, or Joppa (Tel Aviv), Haifa, and lesser developments at lesser towns.

Ancient Trade Routes

Palestine is situated to make traders of its people. More than that, we are assured that the ancient inhabitants knew foreign lands, for Abraham came from Ur of the Chaldees, and the Jewish twelve tribes sojourned in Egypt for several generations learning there some industrial patterns as well as the commerce of the lands.

In spite of the fact that the nations of the Mesopotamian Plains and the people of Egypt were often at war, there was trade between them. The caravan route followed the Fertile Crescent (named by Breasted) from the eastern plains westward up the Euphrates, then across to Aleppo, and on south or past Palmyra and Damascus to the Jordan Valley at Tiberias, through the Valley of Jezreel, Esdraelon, past Carmel, then south along the sea coast, through Sharon and Philistia, and on south to Egypt. This route had only about 150 miles of desert east of Palmyra and Damascus and about an equal stretch from Gaza to Cairo.

If the trade was for Phoenicia, Greece, and other parts of Europe, the route was the same to Palestine, then turned north and west. If the trade was between Egypt and Europe, the route lay through Palestine and Lebanon, or through Damascus, and on to the Dardanelles and westward. The Damascus route led over the Syrian Saddle, a pass through the mountains of Lebanon. These routes took the caravan through Horus, Hama formerly Hamath, Antioch, Tarsus and the Cilician Gates, a route which today is followed closely by the railroad.

The route from India to Europe was a water route to the Red Sea ports on the Egyptian side, then by caravan down the Nile Valley or to ports at the north end of the Red Sea, and by land over the Suez Isthmus and north on the Palestine route, called the Way of the Philistines.

The eastern route from India to Palestine for some time was through the desert of Edom, leaving the Red Sea at Ezion-Geber, at the north end of the Gulf of Akaba and leading north through the great wheat storage center, Petra in Edom, and northward east of Jordan to Damascus. This line would traverse the land of the tribes east of the river, Reuben, Gad, and Manasseh, a route sometimes called the King's Highway but far from Royal.

Modern Nations in Palestine

Israel, the Jewish republic, and Jordan, the Kingdom of Arabs, occupy all of Palestine. The city of Jerusalem, 2,393 feet above sea level and 3,670 feet above the Dead Sea, is the chief city and at the partition of Palestine Oct. 1, 1948, was made "The Jerusalem Enclave" to be administered by the U.N. Trusteeship Council. It is the capital of Israel; and Amman (Philadelphia in New Testament times and later one of the ten Grecian cities called Decapolis), twenty miles east of Jericho and high on the plateau, is the capital of Jordan. Jerusalem is estimated in 1950 to have a population of 110,000 in the Jewish portion and about 70,000 in the Moslem quarter. A narrow "no man's land" between the two nationalities is not usually peaceful.

Amman has an estimated population of 55,000. The total population of Jordan is estimated at 1,400,000, only 400,000 of whom are in the former Transjordan. These are nearly all Moslems, with a few Christian Arabs among them. There are about 10,000 Moslem Circassians in the Transjordan part of the land.

The Hebrew language is spoken all over Israel. Much English, some German, and several east European tongues may be heard but Hebrew alone is taught in the public schools, Arabic is the language of Jordan and is taught in its public schools. Some Hebrew is also used.

By December, 1950, recognition had been given to Israel by 61 nations, including Turkey and Iran and several east European states, but not so many have yet recognized Jordan. Recognitions are in large part for commercial reasons.

Freedom of worship exists theoretically in both nations, and very little discrimination occurs in practice. In Israel the questions of personal status, such as marriage, divorce, legal age, and inheritance, are of some importance. The amount and nature of religious control of education is seriously debated by the conservative eastern Jews, especially those of Yemen, and the progressive emigrants from western Europe and America. Enactments along liberal lines are being considered.

Agriculture

Climate. Both Israel and Jordan have a typical extreme Mediterranean climate; rain meager to quite insufficient, mostly in the winter, giving a growing season and harvest time wholly out of joint with the habitual regime in the northern temperate latitude. The Song of Songs in the Old Testament is apropos.

"Lo, the winter is past,
The rain is over and gone."

The dry season combined with the warmth of summer sunshine means fields are sear and vegetation withered long before fall. By the end of Octo-

ber, heavy rains begin to fall at intervals of a few days and for one to several days duration. These are what the Scriptures call the early or former rains. They open the agricultural year. Hard, cracked, dry ground now yields to plow and pulverizer, and fall crops can be planted.

Some hail and snow fall in most winters, and thunder and hail are noted in the winter and frequently in the spring. As much as two feet of snow has been reported over the hills, and ice has occasionally formed on the pools (reservoirs) about Jerusalem. The latter rains occur in March and April. Coming at such a time, a little before harvest, they are considered very important. May to late September are rainless and almost cloudless. Heavy dews do much to ameliorate the drought of summer.

Winds in winter from the southwest bring moisture from the sea, which is condensed to rain increasingly up the western slopes and also increasingly northward. In summer, the winds come more from the northwest and move into warmer areas, hence, continue to carry their moisture right on. The sea breezes are a great solace and comfort in the heat of summer over all the land; and in the Hauran (Transjordan) they even in modern days are welcome guests and helpers in the winnowing of the small grain.

The rainfall of the lowlands, coastal plain, Esdraelon and Jordan plains, is less, temperature higher, and breezes less effective than on the central highlands. Since these handicaps demand irrigation, many wells for that purpose have been put down near Haifa and Tel Aviv. So many are pumped so faithfully that they have lowered the watertable enough to allow salty sea water to creap in through the rocks to the bottoms of the wells and spoil the well water for irrigation.

Annual rainfall at Nabareth is 25 inches, at Jerusalem less than 24 inches, and the amount rapidly decreases southward and westward. On lower slopes springs furnish good, cool water, but the summits have little. Well-drilling and digging, if not over done, are profitable for water supply on the plains. On the east Jordan plateaus rain is no greater, but stream and spring waters are more abundant. Several streams flow perennially into the Jordan.

Soils and Vegetation. Soils in Palestine are such as result from weathering of limestone under grass cover, usually dark and rich, but thin because washed away down the slopes. Only east of Jordan are there forests. Here large areas of soil are derived from weathered basalt. The forests have responded to the better water supply, but do not extend far beyond the edge of the plateau. There is a tangle of small trees, shrubs, reeds, and the like in the Jordan Valley, particularly on the flood plain and lower slopes, but not on the terraces. Palestine has not had lumber enough for its own use for 3,000-4,000 years, perhaps never. The hills of Bashan and Gilead have furnished more than Judea and Samaria, but when structural lumber was needed in early days Lebanon and King Hiram of Tyre were drawn upon. Abundance of stone, and meager wood supply have produced a culture capable of working stone and made the people even today to be builders and hewers of stone.

Crops. Palestine is a land of fruits and nuts. Oranges and several less important citrus fruits are produced

in fine quality and great quantity on the coastal plain, particularly from Jaffa to Haifa. Grapes for raisins and juices are not so restricted, They find places in many niches and terraces along the wadis and over the hills climbing far up Mt. Carmel and grow in many parts of Jordan. Mulberry, pomegranate and figs are common throughout the land as are the almond pistachio, and olive. The pink blossom of the almond on a tree that much resembles our peach surprises one at many turns in February. Apples, pears, plums, and cherries flourish.

Palestine is likewise a land of grains. Sorghums, millet, wheat, and barley, food for stock and man, are grown in every part of the land. Sesame and mustard are common crops. Pulse, such as beans, peas, and lentils in considerable variety, have a large place in the intensive agriculture. Since 1939 the production of fodders, as maize, sorghums, alfalfa, durra, grasses, and a few oats for stock food, has increased many per cent. A number of medicinal herbs, tobacco, and a little cotton are grown.

Vegetables are varied; potatoes, onions, turnips, tomatoes, cucumbers, melons, mangoes, peppers, peanuts, garlic and leek, are found over wide areas.

Economic Agricultural Organization. In general, as already stated, the citrus fruit culture is found on the western coastal plains with grapes and other fruits. Grapes, olives, almonds, and other fruits grow in terraced gardens on many hill sides. Mixed farming (cereals, fruit and livestock, particularly dairying and the poultry industry) flourishes in Jezreel and Esdraelon, and up the hills in Galilee. Grazing for sheep, goats, and cattle, over the hills of the central ridge is largely in the hands of the Arabs of Jordan.

Four types of rural community occur. No 1, Communal collective settlements, where all property and earnings are collectively owned and all work and institutions are collectively organized. No. 2, Coöperative small holders' settlements; all farms are the same size, all members have the same opportunity and give and receive aid, but hired labor is prohibited. No. 3, Non-Communal settlements; these are completely collective, much like No. 1 except that they have no communal institutions aside from the village school and a social cultural center. They tend to develop industrial enterprises among their agricultural undertakings. No. 4, The villages in which the land and property are privately owned, and every resident is personally responsible for his own welfare.

At the end of 1949 there were 439 colonies in Israel; type No. 1 had 210; No. 2 had 120; No. 3 had 20; No. 4 had 89. In Jordan the rural set-up is mostly of the fourth type, but many families are nomadic, going together as a clan or family group of 2-3-4 generations.

Industries

General. In spite of the lack of minerals and ore, fuel and forests, there is coming a healthy expansion of industry and such development is absorbing a reasonable percentage of the immigration. Some students say industry grows to absorb the newcomers; others say immigration stimulates industry. No doubt there is an important interrelation for both immigration and expanding industry are there.

Government is taking a friendly hand in a significant way to promote but not to control or socialize industry. Recently a government two-year plan was set up to promote industry by developing irrigation and power projects; by devising some selective immigration calling for men interested in industries; and by promotion of road and railroad building and harbor and warehouse facilities. Reforestation in suitable places is being considered and planting has begun; 6,500,000 trees were set in 1951 and 100,000 acres of new forest are growing. Pines occupy the slopes of the Lebanon mountains, and come down into Galilee; acacia on sand dunes near the coast; eucalyptus in swamp lands to dehydrate marshes. There is seven times as much forest as there was six years ago, mostly in Israel.

In December, 1950, Israel established a Supreme Council to formulate an economic policy, to reduce imports, to promote local industries, to encourage new industries to take root, and to help the country connnect more vitally with the U.N. Work Relief Agency. This last has aided the refugees to get quickly on their feet, and to purchase consumer necessities.

The Jewish Agency for Palestine is recognized as a public body "for the purpose of advising and coöperating with the Administration of Palestine in such economic and social matters as may affect the establishment of the Jewish National Home and the Jewish population of Palestine." This agency played a significant rôle in laying political, economic, and social foundations on which the State of Israel was established. In a sense it preceded the state and made the state possible. It is still instrumental in immigration and insuring absorption of the newcomers in Israel where they can be of most value. It is not a control but an advisory agency. It operates in small departments, partly in New York and other cities, and in Jerusalem. In the Jerusalem offices are the departments of Immigration, of Absorption and Integration of new arrivals, of Agricultural Settlement, of Industrial Development and of Marine Expansion. In other countries are the departments of Education, Information and Training for would-be immigrants so they will be prepared to fit into Israel economy when they arrive.

The Jewish Labor League has 250,000 members with lesser trade unions in individual trades. Arab labor has its Palestinian Labor League of Arab peasants, since 1949 called a Union of working Fellaheen. These are not antagonistic groups but are theoretically for the "good of labor."

Resources. There is no known deposit of coal or of iron. Sulphides of copper and iron are known and have been worked for three thousand years in Edom. Both metals are still available, but no coal and little wood for smelting them. There is abundance of limestone and shale for cement; salts of potassium, magnesium, bromine, and common salt are extracted from the Dead Sea. A large English plant, formerly operated near Jericho, is being revived as an Israel plant with British shareholders in a nationalized salt industry. An Arab-English Company produces similar salts from the sea, and a Jewish-English plant is at the south end of the lake. Clays for brick, tile, and pottery, silica sand for glass, and ochre as a basis for red and yellowish paint are

known. There are sulphur, bitumen, and alum deposits, and rock salt, always a valuable asset, has been found. Gypsum and phosphate rock are used for fertilizer, and a Bedouin settlement on the east side of the river had two schemes to develop phosphate rock. Neither was notably successful. These are mentioned to show how very meager are any resources upon which heavy industry could be based.

Power. Highly modern, expanding electric generation helps to supply power. Streams on the east side of Jordan near the Sea of Galilee are operating power plants. A Jordan power plant at Tel Or on the Yarmuk River is one of those, and Jordan River above Lake Huleh powers other generating plants. One of the large projects that plans to bring sea water from the Mediterranean to Dead Sea to maintain its level and salt supply so Jordan waters can be used from Lake Huleh down for irrigation also contemplates two power plants, one east of Samaria and the other near Jericho, using power of falling water as it descends from the divide in Esdraelon region to the Dead Sea, 1500-1600 feet fall. Diesel motors generate electric power in Haifa and in Tel Aviv for industry there. In 1949 this electrification development had reached 329,000,000 kw-hrs. Electricity is used for lighting, household machines, and many machines in factories, telephone, telegraph, radio, etc. There were 23,000 phones in use in 1949.

Labor Supply. Labor supply for industry is remarkably efficient considering that most of the immigration comes for agricultural purposes and from commercial, merchantile, and professional groups. In Israel, the government's two-year plan proposes to increase the number of industrial workers and their production per worker. Immigration of refugees into Jordan has increased the numbers of laborers but made very little increase in production and no increase in resources. In both countries as everywhere industry tends to urbanize people.

Foreign Aid. There is some foreign investment in industry. At present writing there is an Israel bond issue on sale in the United States and probably elsewhere, to raise money for the increase of industry in Palestine. The two-year plan to recruit labor also seeks to encourage private investment in Israel institutions. Foreign loans and gifts have been sought and found. Jewish philanthropies throughout the world have paid in recent years I £24,500,000 toward balancing adverse trade totals, I £21,400,000 represent property transfers, gifts, immigrant belongings and bartered goods.

Types of Industry. It has long been recognized that Palestine is an agricultural land. Historically, it has had mainly subsistance agriculture with many subsistence home industries like making of shoes, harness, tools, clothing, soap, and furniture. Very few of these consumer goods formerly got into the streams of trade. Raw materials like wool, hides, and wheat were exported, but little else. Since the modern streams of immigration have been flowing freely, the land can no longer feed and support the inhabitants, and industry has been forced upon the people.

Industries have grown out of local needs and root in local rural products. A very old industry arising centuries

ago in the coastal plains is soap-making. Olive oil and animal fats are cut with woodash lye. Olives and ashes of wood are both more common on the plain than on the Judean hills. The industry also has grown on the Lebanon foot hills far north. Out of the stock-growing has come wool-dressing, spinning, weaving, and clothing manufacture. Similarly, leather tanning in oak-bark tanning fluids makes leather and from leather are made shoes, boots, coats, caps, and hats of many grades of leather for export. Cotton is imported, spun, and woven for local uses and for export. Flax is grown and the fiber of the stalks finds its way into linen thread and cloth sufficient for some export. Olives and sesame seed and flax-seed are prepared and pressed to derive their oils. Much of the first is eaten, but many tons are exported. Sesame oil is made into cosmetics, medicines, and also exported before thus worked up. The third is made into linseed oil for paint for buildings, sold in cans, and ground with native ochres for paint both for local use and export. The oil cake is mostly used at home for stock food. Figs and raisins from grapes are packed for export. Preserves, juices, marmalades, jams and jellies are made from the citrus fruits and others, not only for the home market but for export. Tobacco, herbs, chemicals, porcelains for artificial teeth, brushes, fountain pens, textiles, and extracts are prepared for both home and foreign markets. Wheat, barley, maize, durra, and millet are milled for flour and cereal preparations for both man and beast to meet much of local need. Potatoes are prepared for starch, alcohol, and potato chips. Some milk products are made from the milk of goats and cows with imported chocolate, flavors, and sweets. These products prosper with the increase in dairy cattle.

Wood-working and furniture, tools and cement building-forms are increasingly manufactured especially in the north near timber and mountain-stream sources of power. Cement, cut stone, and some pottery and china come from the hands of other artisans primarily for the local consumer, but many crates of the latter get into the foreign trade. Fertilizer is made from the Dead Sea salts, from gypsum, limestone and bones of local origin and for local use. Crude oil is imported from the pipe lines or by tankers from Near East oil fields and refined so that several basic products appear for other industries.

A Kaiser-Fraser assembly plant has recently been set up at Haifa at a cost of $2,500,000. A steel plant and a non-ferrous plant are operating in suburbs of Haifa; ore and fuel all imported but limestone is native. The polishing of diamonds, an industry brought by fugitives from Belgium and Netherlands during World War II gives employment to many and accounted for eighteen per cent of Israel's exports in 1949. Raw materials, diamonds, abrasive, and machines, are all imports. This industry furnishes one of the purest types of sale of labor, skill, time, and patience with no depletion of native materials.

An oil pipe line from Iraq terminates at Haifa. Refineries here furnished gasoline, kerosene, oil, and greases for local use. This plant was closed several years and the pipe line shut off, but the refineries have recently been reopened and supplied with oil from tankers sailing through

the Suez Canal from Kuweit and coming also from Venezuela. This oil is a boon to power users. Jordan hopes and plans to have a refinery soon to refine oil drawn off (purchased) from the Arab-America Oil Company pipe line.

Scores of foreign firms operate small industries in the cities. Mention should be made of a Philco plant building refrigerators; shoes, razor blades, watches, fine furs, and chocolate are products of other plants. Tel Aviv and Haifa are the leading industrial cities. Investment in expansion of industry is said to have exceeded I £17,000,000 in 1940, and in spite of strife and unrest, new investment continues in many lines.

Communications

Roads and Railroads. That Palestine was on trade highways for hundreds of years did not mean good roads in the modern sense at all or roads for modern vehicles. Roman roads reached the land but were of little value for commerce or comfort. A path for camel or donkey train was the primary need, and they were chosen to avoid need of bridges, grades, and cuts; paving materials were rarely put upon them. Roman military roads were in places covered with flat slabs of stone to keep chariots out of the mud.

Very little road-building in the modern sense came until the railroad era began. The railroad into Syria from Turkey was the first line. It pushed into Transjordan about fifty years ago and was extended on the plateau east of Jordan River toward Mecca urged by Turkish Moslem religious fervor. That goal has not yet been reached but the road operates to Medina. It puts Damascus and Amman, the Syrian and Jordan capitals, in touch with Europe northward and sustains their connection with other centers of Islam on the south.

In 1906 a narrow-gauge railroad was built connecting this first road just east of the Sea of Galilee through the Valley of Jezreel and Plain of Esdraelon with Haifa on the Mediterranean coast north of Mt. Carmel. During the first World War as British forces advanced from Egypt on the Turks in Palestine, a railroad was extended out of Cairo, and a pipeline was laid with water from fresh-water sources at the Suez Canal. As the army advanced, both pipeline for water and the railroad for transportation were extended to Gaza in 1916-17, and on to Lydda, Jaffa, and Jerusalem. Connections have been extended so that today one can go from Egypt to Lydda and up the hills to Jerusalem or continue on north to Tul Karm, then down to the plain and sea coast at Caesarea, and round the tip of Carmel to Haifa and to Acre. A line runs from Tul Karm to Nablus and a connecting line ties this Nablus line at Sebustiye with the E-W line from Haifa to Beisan and the Jordan N-S line. Other lines are contemplated.

The Jordan line measures 281 miles, and the total of railroads in Israel is 330 miles of standard gauge and 108 miles of narrow gauge. Highways in Jordan add up to 1,470 miles, many of them paved, others graded to drain in rainy weather. Licensed motor cars, December, 1949, numbered 2,021; commercial trucks 1,646. Israel's motor roads are given (1949) as 1,194 miles; some are surfaced and excellent; twice as many miles of roads

are usable in dry weather. Licensed vehicles in December, 1949, were cars 8,000, commercial trucks, etc. 13,000.

Aids to Trade. As aids to commerce, movement of goods, and travel, the cities have banks, insurance and bonding companies, postal and telegraph services, forwarding companies including several American Express Company offices. The airport at Lydda handled an average of 120 planes per month in 1949; many planes of international lines come and go moving 80,000 passengers in the year.

The Ministry of Communications for Israel controls postal, telegraph and phone service and the broadcasting station at Jerusalem. The railroads have been state-owned since August, 1949. Jordan has no government airport and airways, but one small private company operates near the capital.

Ports, Harbors, and Shipping. The ports of Haifa (150,000) and Tel Aviv (400,000 estimate at end of 1950) have nearly all the water-borne trade. Large sums, running into millions of dollars, are being spent on these main ports, in deepening, building breakwaters, constructing piers, warehouses, erecting derricks, cranes, and other machines for loading and unloading vessels as they stand at piers.

Israel's merchant marine in 1949 consisted of 27 vessels with a total tonnage of 78,646. Haifa handled 1,000,000 tons of cargo in 1949, which was more than half of the country's marine trade. It is expected that the development at Tel Aviv will take a larger share soon.

Exports and Imports

Jordan. Jordan produces enough wheat, barley, vegetables, fruit, and livestock for its own use at its standard of living and a little for export; cereals are the largest item, then skins, hides, and wool. The value of imports much exceeds that of exports. June, 1950, Jordan set up a five-year land development program. It will be financed partly by personal loans and gifts from abroad, partly by loans from the Export-Import Bank, and partly by funds from U.N. aid for undeveloped countries. These aids normally get round to pay for imports of machines, tools, engineers, etc. for the development programs.

Israel. Three foreign nations send nearly half the imports to Israel and buy three fourths of the exports. In 1949 the imports in Israel pounds totaled I £87,712,000 ($245,594,532), of which 31.3% came from U.S.A., 9.3% from United Kingdom, and 3.8% from Canada. The exports were I£10,599,000 ($29,678,700), of which 53.8% went to the United Kingdom, 15.6% to U.S.A., and 6.7% to the Netherlands. It will take some three-cornered trading to square these countries with each other; The main imports were machinery, 11%; grain and flour, 8.5%; aircraft and equipment, 7.6%; iron and steel manufacture, 5.8%. These major nations thus take up about three fourths of the exports, and all are thousands of miles away. Similarly, distant nations furnish about 45% of all imports. The main exports are food (tomatoes from Jericho Plain, fruit and fruit juices, beer, wine, and tobacco), 73.3%; textiles and other manufactured goods, 25.6%. Imports include

Summer Session

June 16 to July 26 and July 28 to August 30

1200 Regularly Accredited Subjects and Special Projects from which to choose at

MINNESOTA

Learning and Leisure go together at Minnesota Summer Session in the City of Lakes.

SPECIAL PROJECTS IN....

- Mass Media of Communication
- Language Arts
- Efficient Reading
- Modern Languag Institute
- Renaissance Seminar
- Business History
- Intensive Beginning Greek
- Intensive Russian
- High School Dramatic Workshop
- American Studies
- Scandinavian Studies
- Printed Media

Write Now for Helpful Bulletin !

Dean,
Summer Session
UNIVERSITY
of
MINNESOTA
751 Johnston Hall
Minneapolis 14, Minn.

prepared foods, crude oil, vehicles, and many items made of iron and steel, chemicals, fertilizers, and clothing.

Problems. Israel like Jordan faces grave economic problems, most of which grow out of the adverse (unbalanced) trade situation. In the first eight months of 1950 imports were I£8,000,000 and exports I£19,000,000. This statement shows strongly the results of vigorous efforts to arrive at a more nearly balanced trade sheet. As suggested much earlier in this paper, the imports are balanced in large part by gifts, loans, and foreign investments. The Export-Import Bank loaned $35,000,000 for agricultural development late in 1950. Such a situation as Israel is currently in, is quite unhealthy and of course cannot go on. Probably the administration is more disturbed about it than any one else, but some helpful things can be done by other nations as Israel increases production. Foreign markets can be provided for the growth of industries, particularly such as require moderate amounts of material and a large amount of skill, art, patience, and labor. These are commodities that can be marketed and not deplete the supply at home but rather increase it by the using.

Mon Premier Cahier

A Drill Book in First Year French

By Immaculata M. Lavorgna, M. Ed.
Vice Principal, Francis Parkman School, Boston

This new drill book for forty exercises in first year French, is based upon representative courses of study and fitted to the needs of teachers and pupils. Each exercise concerns a single item of French grammar and contains sufficient material to meet the individual differences of various classes. There are occasional cumulative pages upon previous drills.

Price: 50 cents,
10% discount on class orders.

THE PALMER COMPANY
370 Atlantic Avenue Boston 10, Mass.

Conservation, *an* International Problem

By STEPHEN S. and HALENE HATCHER VISHER
Indiana University, and ex- U. S. Office of Education

MOST conservation is strictly local. The soil is conserved on a particular slope; each individual tree must be separately used if the forest is to be conserved; every bit of mineral or wild life requires attention. This extreme localization of conservation is so essential that it can be declared that the essence of conservation is the care of and the wise use of innumerable tiny bits of the world. Nevertheless conservation has its international aspects, several of which are here mentioned.

Conservation Problems of International Scope

A conservation problem which early received international attention was the restriction of the spread of disease. Every country desires to prevent the introduction of life forms (germs, weeds, animal pests) which are likely to cause destruction if introduced. The more advanced nations have quarantine and inspection regulations in an effort to prevent the introduction of dangerous plants or animals. However, if only local, quarantines are of only limited success. Active international cooperation between the countries from which the shipments come and those receiving them is highly advantageous. As commerce becomes increasingly rapid and voluminous, the need for cooperation increases. Hence, the development of more effective methods of preventing the spread of diseases and pests has become an aspect of conservation of great importance. Indeed, airplanes can spread so quickly such extremely dangerous diseases as yellow fever and various fruit diseases that it is almost imperative that international cooperation be extended in their control.

Migratory birds, fish and mammals afford another series of international problems of conservation. A large share of the summer birds of Canada, for example, spend their winters in southern United States or even in South America. Efforts to conserve them must, if they are to be succesful, include improving conditions for the bird throughout its range, not merely in one country. Gains made in its breeding area can easily be offset by losses in migration or in its winter range. For example, ducks reared in Canada may be almost exterminated in winter in Mexico by mass destruction. Strict regulation of hunting in the United States is entirely ineffectual if appropriate nesting areas become not available in Canada, or if ducks are slaughtered with canon in Mexico. Likewise the migratory song birds of England and other northern European countries need protection

from mass destruction in Italy or elsewhere by snaring and otherwise.

Many fish are migratory, and it is not enough to protect them in only one part of their range. A striking example of the need for international cooperation in conservation is afforded by the fur seal which rear their young on the Pribolof Islands. For some decades so many were slaughtered beyond the U. S. Coastal Waters Zone as they swam toward the islands that they became almost extinct. Then by international treaty, all killing was done on the islands under the supervision of the U. S., and the valuable pelts obtained there were divided among Canada, Japan, Russia and the United States. Scientific studies of these animals' habits, and careful regulation of the killings (only of young males) has enabled the herd to become thousands of times as large as when the cooperative treaty went into effect, with the result that the animal harvest is very much larger. The quality of the pelts is also much improved by the method of killing. Whales afford another example of the need for international cooperation if they are to be conserved. Unfortunately, the Russians have not yet cooperated as to whaling.

Many streams cross international boundaries and require international arrangements if they are to be most wisely used. For some rivers, including the Colorado, Milk, Niagara, St. Lawrence, and Rio Grande, fairly satisfactory adjustments have been worked out between United States and Mexico or Canada. But for many European rivers, and scattered ones in other continents, much remains to be done in solving their international conservation problems.

A very serious group of international conservation problems are concerned with the wiser use of the mineral resources of the world. These include the metals, fuels, and also the soil and water power. For all of these there are numerous examples of the need of international understandings and adjustments. It is almost impossible to make the wisest use of any natural resource on a purely local basis. The chief exception is in such a large country as the United States, where nearly all of the production of many natural resources is consumed as well as produced within the country's borders. But in the United States, the wise use of our petroleum and copper, for example, is appreciable influenced by the petroleum produced in Iran or South America and by the copper of Africa.

One great group of international problems in conservation concerns the development of better methods of utilization of the various resources, and how these better methods can come to be more widely used. This calls for research and education. Tremendously more effective conservation will be attained when all parts of the world practice the best methods of wise use of resources already practiced in some small areas.

This need for cooperation in the discovery and widened use of knowledge of conservation brings us to the question of the exchange of people. There are a great many international problems relative to the movements of people. Undoubtedly some of the most pressing problems of our generation involve the drastic contrasts in population density. Moreover, these contrasts are increasing rapidly. Not many centuries ago, all but a very

little of the world was sparsely populated. Now, however, there is a rapidly increasing population, due in considerable part to the great progress that has been made in reducing deaths from disease and starvation. The prolongation of life, a major achievement in conservation, must now be supplemented by a reduction in the birthrate of many of the world's people, so as to make it possible that they can live decently. The needed reduction in the birthrate can be accomplished apparently best by increasing the knowledge as to who should reduce, and by aiding them in doing so. Up to the present, the reduction in the birth-rate has been chiefly of people who should have children, while many people ill-qualified to rear worthy future citizens increase rapidly in numbers.

Some of the most impressive international problems in Conservation concern the reduction of warfare. This includes economic warfare, which could be greatly reduced by unrestricted trade between countries—no tariff. Military wars are, of course, one of the most wasteful of all human activities. To safeguard natural resources, as well as human, it is important that war be abolished. When lasting peace is attained, mankind can be vastly better off. Indeed, the money now expended for war and in preparation for war could, if spent wisely for human betterment, greatly raise the standard of living of the world's population.

The world's resource which is least adequately used is that of human potentiality. If all men and women accomplished as much as they could accomplish if fully and effectively employed, the world's out-put would be increased many fold, possibly more than a hundred fold. Full and effective employment requires adequate development of all individuals (making use of their talents as well as their energy), careful preparation, good health, and perhaps of most importance, wise leadership. Hence, the greatest of all international problems of conservation is how to bring about the wisest possible use of the talents and other potentialities of the world's people.

Recent International Approaches To Conservation

Thinking people the world over are coming to recognize conservation as a matter of vital concern to each individual. A rapidly increasing number of people sense the close relationship between the use of the earth's resources and the degree of political stability and well-being of the people. They are coming to view conservation as did Gifford Pinchot, "the key to the safety and prosperity of . . . . all the people of the world for all time." More and more, leaders are coming to recognize that throughout the world people must either make wiser use of their resources or sink to lower standards of living, with impairment of human welfare, decrease in political stability, and reduction of ability to protect themselves against aggression.

Progress toward international cooperation in conservation is necessarily slow. Nations differing greatly in economic and technological development, in ideologies, and in political ambitions find it difficult to attack cooperatively their mutual problems. But despite serious difficulties, real progress is being made.

The recent international conservation conferences are milestones in the history of world conservation. The

Inter-American Conference on Conservation of Renewable Natural Resources, Denver, 1948, was the first meeting of its kind ever held. At this conference, administrators, scientists, technicians, and educators from 22 western-hemisphere countries shared experiences gained in their respective areas. They analyzed critical conservation problems, adopted resolutions recommending action by the governments and international organizations, and set forth a Declaration of Principles. This conference aided in enlightening a wide public and in adding to conservation literature an invaluable document, "Proceedings of the Inter-American Conference on Conservation of Renewable Natural Resources," available from the U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. Within this compilation, the conference papers are arranged according to the following program sections: I, Human Populations and Productive Capacity of the Land; II, Renewable Resources and International Relations; III, Land Use and the Social Sciences; IV, The Dynamics of Renewable Resources; VI, Making Conservation Effective.

The first world-wide conservation conferences, the United Nations Scientific Conference on the Conservation and Utilization of Resources, and the International Technical Conference on the Protection of Nature, convened at Lake Success in 1949. They marked a significant step toward effecting efficient programs of action in various countries and in furthering notable developments in world understanding, cooperative research, and conservation education. As pointed out by Dr. Fairfield Osborn, the world conferences on resources are indicative "of the evolution of human society. A century ago, even a half-century ago, such a meeting would have been impossible. Slowly but surely the shackles of selfish nationalism are dissolving. Nations are commencing to sense that their well-being is influenced by conditions in countries on the opposite side of the earth."

The United Nations Scientific Conference on the Conservation and Utilization of Resources had its inception in 1946 when President Truman wrote to the U. S. representative to the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations, "The real or exaggerated fear of resource shortages and declining standards of living in the past involved nations in warfare. Every member of the United Nations is deeply interested in preventing a recurrence of that fear and of those consequences. Conservation can become a major basis of peace." Following the receipt of the President's suggestion, the Economic and Social Council, fully aware of the "need for continuous development and widespread application of the techniques of resource conservation and utilization," called the conference to concern itself primarily with the practical applications of science to resource management and human use.

The conference, attended by 706 participants from 51 countries, was designed to mobilize the scientific and practical knowledge "essential to equip the nations of the world for the task of raising and maintaining the living standards of their people." The value of bringing together scientists, economists, engineers, sociologists, geographers, resource administrators, educators, and other specialists in resource fields to exchange knowledge and share wisdom in a common cause was emphasized in the welcoming address

by Secretary of the Interior, J. A. Krug. "That cause is the improvement of man's standard of living, particularly in the underdeveloped areas of the world, through the protection and wise use of man's common heritage of natural wealth, wherever it may be . . . . It is a step in the direction of using the world's resources for the benefit of all its people. It is a great stride toward international teamwork."

The value of the conference in helping to lay the groundwork for President Truman's program of aid to underdeveloped areas was emphasized by Secretary of Agriculture, Charles F. Brannan. He maintained that the Point Four Project can not be successful without knowledge of the world's resources. Since conservation can reduce economic pressures and fears of scarcity, which have always played a large part in bringing on wars, the conference considered the economic and social aspects of wise resource utilization. The exchanging and sharing of ideas and experiences among specialists and the focusing of worldwide attention upon vital conservation problems were considered by the participants to be of monumental value. The 550 papers by authors from 47 countries gave a comprehensive treatment of numerous resource problems.

The International Technical Conference on the Protection of Nature was held concurrently with the United Nations Scientific Conference on the Conservation and Utilization of Resources. Sponsored jointly by UNESCO and the International Union for the Protection of Nature, it carefully examined effective means of creating a better understanding of man's relation to his environment.

The background material for the two plenary meetings and eleven technical sessions included 130 papers, a few of which were read, but most of which served as a basis for the stimulating discussions in the technical sessions. The 125 participants, representing 110 scientific and international organizations from 31 countries, drafted recommendations for action on both a national and international scale. The resolutions adopted deal with the development of an adequate methodology for the study of human ecology; the introduction of the teaching of the principles of conservation and nature protection in all schools at all levels of learning; the establishment of a Permanent Joint Commission to deal with problems of insect pests; the preservation of vanishing species of fauna and flora; the establishment of control over the introduction of exotic species; the facilitation of duty-free exchange of films, books, and other documentary material dealing with the protection and conservation of renewable resources; the promotion of international fellowships for study and training; and the encouragement of the greatest possible degree of collaboration between organizations concerned with nature protection and conservation and those concerned with the utilization of resources. Of the twenty-three resolutions adopted, five relate specifically to conservation education and training.

Both world conferences recognized the inadequacy of present-day education for conservation. Moreover, in both conferences, the belief was prevalent that achieving success in vitalizing conservation and, thereby, improving human welfare is an immense educational task.

Among other current approaches to conservation problems on the interna-

tional scale are the efforts of UNESCO to secure an international agreement to facilitate the duty-free circulation of educational materials between countries. The granting of scholarships to enable individuals from underdeveloped countries to come to the United States to study the science and technique of conservation; the compiling and publishing of a catalog, "An International Index of Films," dealing with wise utilization of resources; the carrying out of a study (based upon an inquiry made in 31 countries to determine in each the role of conservation education in effecting conservation practices and the methods used for encouraging the protection and more efficient use of natural resources), and publishing of the results, "Education for the Conservation and More Efficient Use of Natural Resources" are a few of the efforts being made by UNESCO to further international conservation education and research.

The International Union for the Protection of Nature is contributing significantly by developing projects in scientific research, and conservation education. Among the major objectives of this organization are participating in safeguarding parts of nature, habitats, or species which are in danger of destruction; spreading knowledge that is already available on the art and science of nature protection; educating adults and children to realize the danger which lies in the alteration of natural resources and the necessity of common action against such danger; instigating international agreements on the protection of nature; and to encouraging scientific research on the art and science of nature protection. The Union, recognizing conservation education as a problem that urgently demands attention, established in 1949 the first Education Commission and charged it with the responsibility of improving educational programs.

Booklets and other materials for school children and adults are in preparation. Other efforts include preparing a card index of international films; establishing youth clubs devoted to conservation and the study of nature; and organizing missions for ecological studies.

Other international organizations are cooperatively attacking conservation problems. Some of them are the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, the World Health Organization, the International Commission for Agricultural Industries, the Pacific Science Association, the Pan-American Union, the Inter-national Council of Biological Sciences, and the International Council of Scientific Unions.

Unquestionably, the international conferences and the on-going projects of international agencies and organizations mark important events in the history of conservation. They contribute much toward arousing world-wide conservation consciousness, toward developing world understanding in many significant phases of conservation problems, and toward establishing action-programs designed to effect harmonious relations between man and his physical earth-base. These prerequisites to a dynamic role for conservation further the preservation of human welfare and the establishment of conditions favoring lasting peace among divergent peoples.

Minerals *and* National Power

By OTIS W. FREEMAN
Eastern Washington College of Education

MINERALS are the primary essential for preparedness programs of nations. Shortages in petroleum products and many strategic metals had much to do with the defeat of Germany in two world wars and of Japan in World War II. Victories by the United States in these wars stemmed from our vast industrial production which is largely dependent upon mineral resources, both from domestic mines and accesible sources in foreign countries. The products of industry were substituted for human beings, thereby saving the lives of hundreds of thousands of American soldiers.

The location of mineral deposits is highly irregular because their occurrence depends upon the vagaries of geology in bygone ages. For example, coal and oil are found in sedimentary rocks that contain suitable deposits of organic matter from which the fuels are manufactured in nature's laboratory. Many construction materials, likewise, are interbedded with rocks of sedimentary origin, notably gypsum, clay, sand and limestone. Sometimes, sediments may be used as ores of metals, aluminum and some iron ore being examples, but usually the deposits of metals are associated with igneous and ancient metamorphic rocks. Some minerals are recovered from saline lakes and the ocean, for example bromine, potash and common salt. Tin, gold, platinum and precious stones are among the minerals often recovered from superficial accumulations of gravel and other debris called placers.

In the wars against Germany and Japan, both comparatively small in area and deficient in many minerals, the Allied countries dominated the oceans and prevented their enemies from importing adequate quantities of essential minerals from foreign sources. The present strained relations between the Western World and the U. S. S. R. and its communist satellites find the areas controlled and populations of the contestants more equal. However, the Western powers have greater resources of most minerals than are yet developed in Russia and also much greater capacity for the utilization of minerals in industry. Furthermore, by controlling the sea lanes, the Allied Powers can freely import minerals from other sources which because of poor available transportation are largely closed to the communists. In actual tonnage, products of mineral origin, transported by ocean vessels, exceed that of products of agriculture, forests or any other source.

There are certain regions of the world that contain an abundance of essential and strategic minerals, and the control of the mining industry in such places is highly important to the Allied Nations.

Both North America and South America supply quantities of minerals. The United States is endowed

with vast deposits of coal, petroleum, iron, copper, lead and zinc, yet the consumption of these minerals has increased to such a degree that shortages have developed and imports of iron ore and copper are needed to supplement domestic supplies. Steel required for two world wars seriously depleted the resources of high grade iron ore on the Mesabi Range in Minnesota. In order to maintain production in excess of 100,000,000 tons of steel annually, ore is being increasingly imported. Chile, Cuba and New Foundland have long supplied ore to furnaces located on the Atlantic seaboard. In 1951 iron ore imports began from Venezuela and Liberia, to which will soon be added millions of tons from Labrador. In addition, there has been a considerable expansion of production of magnetite ore from the Adirondacks, and work is progressing on the concentration of low grade taconite in Minnesota. Brazil is another prospective source for high grade iron ore.

Great Britain, France, the Saar Basin, Belgium, and western Germany produce more iron and steel than the output of this in communist countries, and the United States alone has almost three times the steel tonnage of that from the U. S. S. R. Iron ore from Sweden, Spain, New Foundland, the Barbary States comes to western Europe to supplement local resources which are insufficient to feed the hungry furnaces. In the open hearth process of steel making, scrap iron is needed in equal quantities to iron ore. Control over supplies of scrap iron to prevent shipments of scrap to potential enemies is now a firm policy for industrial nations.

Copper, lead and zinc to supplement domestic supplies and replace these metals in machinery and other fabricated forms, comes to the United States mainly from Canada, Mexico, Peru and Chile. Bauxite, the ore of aluminum is imported from British and Dutch Guiana, our own resources of bauxite in Arkansas being inadequate. About one-half of the output of aluminum comes from the Pacific Northwest because of the great blocks of hydro electric power available in that region. Canada exports nickel and much uranium ore to the United States.

The output of petroleum in the United States in 1951 was the greatest on record, but production abroad increased even more so that the percentage of world production of petroleum by the United States declined, as has happened for the past several years, although our country still produces over half of the world's output of petroleum. Exports of petroleum products from the United States are large but are replaced in large part by imports of crude oil from Venezuela and Colombia.

In coal the United States has resources large enough to last for many centuries and we export millions of tons of coal to eastern Canada and western Europe. Imports of coal are negligible.

Natural gas, once largely wasted in the United States, is now conserved and sent by pipeline to distant markets. For example from Texas to the Midwest, New York and New England.

Besides the minerals before mentioned, Latin America supplies the United States with much tin from Bolivia, tungsten, copper and vanadium from Peru, nitrates from Chile,

mercury and antimony from Mexico, platinum from Colombia, manganese, thorium, industrial diamonds, beryl, and quartz crystals from Brazil. Canada exports to the United States asbestos, copper, iron ore, nickel, uranium, zinc and other minerals.

Western Europe is the keystone in the defense wall of the Allied powers against communist aggression. The Near East, northern Africa, the Mediterranean border lands of Turkey, Greece, Yugoslavia, France, Italy and Spain and Portugal all supply minerals needed by the highly industrialized sections of northwestern Europe. Should these parts of the world ever be gained by the U. S. S. R., the communists could completely dominate the Old World continents and countries and the security of the United States would be seriously threatened. Communist control of the Near East-Mediterranean strip would eliminate most of the deficiencies in strategic minerals for the U. S. S. R. The Near East, Iran, Iraq, Arabia and Kuwait constitute the handiest source of oil for western and southern Europe. Lack of pipelines to Russia and of Soviet tankers at present preclude shipment of petroleum products in large quantities to countries behind the Iron Curtain. From Turkey comes emery and chromite, from Italy, sulphur and mercury, from Yugoslavia copper and bauxite, from Southern France, bauxite, from Spain, copper, pyrite, iron, mercury and tungsten, from Portugal tungsten and from northern Africa iron ore and phosphate rock. These minerals are shipped to western Europe where the technological skill of the people, the huge smelters and numerous metal working plants are of inestimable value to the Allied Powers.

Among the industries in western Europe are iron and steel plants, aluminum works, lead and zinc smelting and utilization, copper refining, oil refineries and chemical works. In addition large quantities of foodstuffs, timber and fishery products are available. Pot-ash is mined and synthetic nitrates are available for industry and fertilizers.

The use of England, Scandinavia, Spain, Africa and the Near East for air and naval bases are also of high strategic worth.

Natural advantages and human skill and experience are combined in western Europe to make that region of paramount importance internationally.

Central and South Africa is a valuable adjunct for minerals needed by western Europe. The output of copper from the Belgian Congo and northern Rhodesia is one-fifth that of the world's production. Africa provides much of the uranium, most of the world's supply of cobalt, columbite, tantalite, diamonds and over half of the output of gold. Important amounts of antimony, asbestos, chromite, graphite, manganese, platinum, and tin also are available to Europe from Africa south of the Sahara.

Australia exports much lead and zinc, along with small amounts of some other metals. The country has considerable coal and iron ore which support a growing iron and steel industry centering around Newcastle. Pacific islands seldom possess workable deposits of minerals. Exceptions are New Calendonia, from which comes nickel and chromite, and Nauru and Ocean islands that supply phosphate rock.

Central and northern Asia are within the Soviet sphere and furnish petroleum, coal, iron, copper, antimony, gold, tungsten, tin, zinc and other minerals for communist use. The United States in the past has imported much manganese and chromite from southern Russia and some platinum from the Urals but at present cannot depend upon securing these metals from the U. S. S. R.

The minerals of southeast Asia come mainly to the Western Powers, although small shipments are made to China and some of these supplies doubtless end up in Soviet factories.

Indonesia is an important source of petroleum and small amounts come from Burma and Hindustan. Malaya and Indonesia together furnish about three-fifths of the world's output of tin, and in addition to these minerals, most of the natural rubber and much other tropical products. Other minerals include lead from Burma, graphite from Ceylon, mica, beryl and manganese from Hindustan, and chromite, gold and iron ore from the Philippines. Phosphate rock and bauxite is mined on certain islands southeast of the Mainland of Asia. Hindustan has a small production of iron and steel, as yet inadequate for all her own needs.

Japan has coal, copper and some iron ore, but in general lacks adequate resources of minerals. However, Japan has the greatest industrial development outside of Europe and North America and it is important to the Allied Nations to control Japan and prevent its acquisition by the communists.

The communists control deposits of zinc, uranium and bauxite in Poland, Czechoslovakia and Hungary, which together with the oil of Romania, and coal and iron of Poland and eastern Germany, are available to their industries. The U. S. S. R. has expanded its iron and steel industry and when production from satellite countries is added, the communists' share of the world's production of iron and steel is above one-fifth. The western world controls the other four-fifths of this most important metal.

In order to insure adequate supplies of minerals for defense and industrial use, it is essential that the Allies continue to control the sources of minerals available for export in Southern Asia, the Near East, Mediterranean Region and Africa. The Americas alone are hardly enough. It is logical to expect our international relations to be geared to these requirements and any further retreat of the Allied defense line along the Iron Curtain might be disastrous to the future of the Western World.

Minerals are essential to the maintenance of national power, and the foreign policies of the United States and other countries are largely determined by the desire to secure and control these highly important strategic materials.

Stable *versus* Unstable Geography

By H. F. RAUP
Kent State University

ONE of the cardinal principles in in the study of geography is the insistence upon the dynamic character of its subject matter. The importance of the principle was brought home to the writer not long ago when his seventh-grade daughter reported at the dinner table that she had learned in her geography class that the Amazon Valley of Brazil was our largest source of latex from which our rubber supply was manufactured. Had the conversation occurred thirty-five years ago, there would have been no need to correct the young lady's information or misinformation. Unfortunately, her student teacher had obtained source materials on rubber production that should have been used with more discrimination before they were presented as facts to a group of seventh graders. The supervising teacher apparently lacked sufficient geographical training or background to sense the inaccuracy of the facts; furthermore, the library from which such information was obtained should have been supplied with more up-to-date source material. Through a combination of circumstances, an entire class was provided with incorrect information because student teacher, critic teacher, and librarian had failed to sense the change that occurred in the sources of our rubber supply after 1913.

While it is true that the facts of geography are constantly subject to change, it is also true that there is a core of slowly-changing subject matter and this makes it possible for the geographer and the geography teacher to present information that will be authoritative over a considerable period of time. Any instructor who teaches the geography of Europe is faced with the necessity of answering the question: "How do you manage to teach the geography of Europe when the boundary lines change so often?" The same idea is expressed by the remark, "When I went to school, Austria-Hungary was always pink on the map, and we didn't have to worry about Poland at all because it never appeared on the map." Not only do boundaries change, but nations come and go with increasing frequency during the lifetime of a single geographer. We no sooner gain adequate command of the political map and all that it implies than a political upheaval erases the familiar things and substitutes new nations, new boundaries, new colors, and even new cities. We must relearn a whole new set of facts. That is the point of view implied in the question, "How do you manage to teach when the subject matter is so unstable?"

This seeming instability of the subject may be the reason why so many instructors as well as students are baffled by the problem of learning the core material; it may also account for the relatively poor quality of the teaching of geography as it is carried out in the elementary grades by teachers

whose geographical training has been inadequate. An instructor who is well grounded in subject as well as in method should experience no serious difficulty in handling his students or in accelerating their interest in geography. Among the more stable aspects of geography, the following should be drawn to the attention of both teacher and class:

Zones of conflict: The conflicts are unstable though the zone endures and may continue to be present through centuries of time. The oustanding example of unstable conflict within a stable zone is the shatter belt of central Europe, in which some aspects of the geography change with great rapidity while the zone itself has been recognized for a long period of time. Certainly there should be no hesitation on the part of the teacher in making clear the character of this zone to his students, no matter whether the part of Europe in question is in front of or behind an Iron Curtain. In fact, over a long-time view, an understanding of the basic character of this shatter zone is absolutely essential to an understanding of the political and social instability that prevails there from time to time. To the teacher (and his student) who lacks sufficient geographical comprehension of the underlying conditions in the shatter belt, the present-day political upheaval makes little or no sense. On the other hand, to the geographer who knows the basic materials well, the current conflict in central Europe is only one of many such episodes throughout the history of its peoples.

Details of Material Culture: Boundaries of fields, the patterns of cities, village types, house and barn types, methods of transportation, routes of transportation—these and many other items change with relative slowness. Unless he lives under a communistic society in which land is owned in common, the farmer is proud of "his" field or "his" farm. Rarely is he willing to change field patterns or farm patterns; he may add acres to his holdings, but seldom will he revise the limits of the fields in which he has planted crops for many years, and it is extremely common practice to continue to cultivate a farm through several generations of owners without making a material change in the pattern of cultivation.

Cities may be blasted into oblivion, but the basic reason for their existence as cities cannot be so easily dislodged. Earthquake and fire thoroughly wrecked the principal business district of San Francisco in 1906, but not all the persuasive arguments of the city-planners could induce the property owners and the residents to rearrange their city's pattern in a more favorable design to care for modern transportation and to eliminate some of the traffic problems that were beginning to plague the city administration. Only small areas of European cities are being cleared and modernized as the rubble is cleared away; the citizens prefer the city pattern with which they have been familiar for centuries.

Of more real importance to a city's existence is the continuance of those factors which give rise to its importance in trade, but they usually change slowly. An example will serve to clarify the point. Before 1940, Hamburg was the important port through which much of the produce of eastern Germany was shipped; today, with a political and economic barrier separating eastern from western Germany, the

cities along the southern shore of the Baltic have taken a large share of Hamburg's former traffic for themselves since they are subject to domination by the Soviet Union, while Hamburg lies outside the sphere of Russian influence. This type of changing geography is important to the teacher and to the student alike, but the change is by no means sudden.

Other details of material culture that change slowly include the types of houses that are built, both in city and in country. Human tastes tend toward the conservative in such matters, and innovations are usually slow to be adopted. It is not at all uncommon for a man whose personal background lies entirely within a city to move to the country, and there he builds a city-type residence for himself, even though in function and style it is wholly out of keeping with its rural surroundings. Among the most stable features of our geography today are the buildings that serve the American farmer, and in general this same stability prevails on the farms of other nations. Rural people generally comprise the most conservative groups within a country, and this attitude may extend to their views toward political institutions as well as toward rural farmhouse types.

One more example will be sufficient at this point. Transportation routes change, but as a rule they do not change with marked rapidity. In general they are governed by features of the relief, or the presence of raw materials to be developed; sometimes they are designed with little regard to natural features but serve through traffic, like the Pennsylvania Turnpike, or the German *Autobahnen*. Even so, it may take years before the routes change materially. Recently the Pennsylvania Turnpike was opened to the western border of the state, but unfortunately the State of Ohio had planned no westward extension of this main route, with the result that traffic routes in northeastern Ohio are due for a considerable change in a short space of time; it may be five years or ten years before Ohio can complete its turnpike to take care of the traffic that is dumped at its eastern border by the Pennsylvania route. These changes, however, are spectacular, and in general the quiet rural roads change little from year to year, continuing to carry local traffic as they have done for many years and many generations before. Frequently they may be traced far back in time to a period preceding the coming of the white man; surely there is no marked degree of instability under such circumstances!

Details of non-material culture: The distribution of languages, religious views, and similar features of human society are not ordinarily studied within the limits of geography. Most geographers prefer to deal with the material leaving the non-material to sociology, religion, and other subjects. However, it is frequently necessary to understand that while languages do change, their distribution is unlikely to undergo marked change unless there be a migration of great importance. The settlement of the New World with peoples whose linguistic affiliations stemmed from Romance and from Anglo-Saxon sources was a tremendous linguistic conquest of the 15th, 16th, and 17th centuries, but no one could claim that a change requiring three centuries to complete could be

called abrupt. In this connection, we should not forget that the spread of a new people and new languages throughout the New World was of greater consequence, relatively, than all the shuttling that has gone on back and forth across the European shatter belt for many centuries.

An understanding of the stable aspects of geography, then, is essential if we are to supply elementary and secondary school pupils with an adequate comprehension of the backgrounds against which current changes are taking place, in the fields of economics, sociology, history, political science, and in other subjects. No other subject will meet the need and no other single subject will provide the essential background. We need not deplore the seemingly rapid changes that take place in a given part of the earth; possibly they are only a detail in the pattern that is taking shape. Certainly they are understandable in the light of human geography.

SELECTED CHILDREN'S BOOKS

Reviewed by PAUL ZANKOWICH

Teacher, East Meadow (Long Island) Public Schools

Royal Red. By Jack O'Brien. Illustrated by Kurt Wiese. Philadelphia. The John C. Winston Company. 1951. vii and 215 pages. $2.50.

This rugged story- of adventure, a posthumous work of the author, is about a fiery colt of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. Indian discontent, land theft, and illegal logging provide a rich background for this tale of the north woods.

The Sea Gulls Woke Me. By Mary Stolz. New York. Harper and Brothers. 1951. 240 pages. $2.50.

This novel presents very real young people who can deal capably with their own problems and who can enjoy themselves with all the enthusiasm of youth. Jean, whose hair was so long that she could sit on it, knew that a sixteen-year-old girl did not look her best with this mop of crowning glory. She was on her way to spend the summer holiday in Maine but she stopped into a beauty shop on her way. Her summer in Maine provides the kind of experiences young girls will enjoy reading about.

Scouting for Washington. By Lois Donaldson. Illustrated by Wilmer Wickham. Chicago. Albert Whitman and Company. 64 pages. $1.50.

Boys and girls will enjoy this exciting story of two scouts who served in the American Revolution under General Washington. The characterizations of the scouts and of Washington are excellently done.

Andrew Jackson. By Geneieve Foster. New York. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1951. 112 pages. $2.00.

Andrew Jackson, the "People's President," is presented to young readers in this book which the author calls an "initial" biography. Boys and girls will get a good picture of the warm-hearted, yet turbulent, Andy.

The Peculiar Miss Pickett. By Nancy R. Julian. Drawings by Donald E. Cooke. Philadelphia. The John C. Winston Company. 1951. 73 pages. $1.50.

Miss Pickett is a baby sitter who offers circuses at home, whistling teapots, and an interview with the Big Bear. Youngsters will howl as they read the antics of this little, white-haired bespectacled lady.

The Newer View *of* Geography

By JOHN E. OWEN

Department of Social Sciences, University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland

THE definition of geography has broadened considerably in recent years. Far from being regarded merely as the study of the earth, geography is now looked upon in wider terms as the reciprocal relationship between man and his natural environment. Nevertheless it is pertinent to inquire whether all the implications of this broader perspective have been grasped by those outside, and even more important, by those inside the field. It is becoming more and more apparent that geography is one of the social studies. It is, indeed, a bridge between the natural and social sciences. Its data are drawn from all their manifold divisions and in many respects it is the core of the social studies, a basic science of man in his environment. The teacher of geography is in a unique position to give his students many fresh slants on life in society and on the human problems which arise from geographic causes whose influence seldom receives the recognition it deserves.

Geography impinges upon life at every point, yet geography teachers have not always pressed the claims of their subject for its greater significance in the school curriculum. It is the thesis of this article that geography, far from being the Cinderella or mere appendage of instructional programs, could well become the integrating focus for the entire curriculum of the social studies. One way in which this could be achieved would be through an alignment of this subject with a historical and cultural approach to the story of man's life. In addition to imparting some of the basic facts of climate, topography, and natural resources, the geography course could become an orientation for the whole history of human civilization—the slow development of man from the earliest forms of primitive hunting, fishing, and agriculture, all the way up to modern culture and the recent attempts to evolve a world society. The role of geographic factors in making man's society could be introduced at every point in the study, since this role has been a vital one.

Such a course could be made to include a study of the growth of material culture, a broad field that would introduce the student to the whole development of human artifacts and tools from the earliest days of the race, implemented by the growth of inventions and the gradual discovery of new natural resources and techniques for the better utilization and adaptation of the earth's secrets. The curriculum possibilities that stem from this broader view of the subject are very expansive. They include such fields as the growth and evolution of architecture, housing, inventions, food production, clothing, and other topics which could be introduced or omitted as the instructor saw fit, all treated in terms of geography, broadly conceived as the

complex of influential factors in the natural environment which help determine the course of human life and destiny.

Courses bearing upon the growth of civilization have usually been reserved for college and university level, and the implications of modern geography are very pertinent for discussions of educational aims on the undergraduate basis. Yet there is no reason why the culture approach, using the word "culture" in the sociological sense, should not begin in the high school. This represents a means of combining geography and history in a more integrated way than has usually been the case in the teaching of either subject. It does not usurp the claims or the place of history, since high school history has itself not been broadened to include the general history of culture, in the sense of man's growing mastery over nature and the physical environment. The whole fascinating story of man's struggle with the natural order, the building up of his civilization or way of life, his interaction with the forces of external surroundings—all of this lies within the legitimate scope of this field as it is now more broadly conceived in terms of the reciprocal relationship between environment and life.

A second related way in which geography could assume more significance as the core of the social studies program involves its utilization as a means of introducing students to the lives of cultures other than their own. In this twentieth century of rapid world-wide transportation, communication, and culture-contact, a greater knowledge and understanding of other peoples is patently imperative. Indeed, Ruth Benedict has stated that "there has never been a time when civilization stood more in need of individuals who are genuinely culture-conscious, who can see objectively the socially conditioned behavior of other peoples without fear and recrimination." (*Patterns of Culture*, pp. 10-11). Other leaders in social science, notably Arnold Toynbee, F. S. C. Northrop, and Margaret Mead, have been equally insistent upon the current need for intercultural understanding and the consequent necessity for educational systems to adapt their programs toward a broader view of life in society than was permissible in earlier decades.

But have all the potentialities of geography as a force that might lead to world understanding been duly recognized by those responsible for the organization and planning of the social studies curriculum? That international understanding is required, and required urgently, is becoming increasingly realized; it is seen now more clearly than ever before that world tensions are in part cultural tensions, the conflict of divergent civilizations or ways of life that man has built up for himself in the course of his social development. It is not so apparent, though, that geography is an essential element in modifying human culture and in serving as a contributing factor in creating differentiations in social life and economic activity, and in generally giving rise to different "experiments in living" that distinguish one culture from another.

That geographic factors play their part in making farming in Wisconsin different from farming in Central India is a truism, yet the larger effects of geography upon the whole way of

life of a people have been strangely ignored. The influence of isolation on social attitudes is a case in point, as are the ways in which the physical environment creates the conditions out of which distinct cultures are enabled to emerge. Thus as Roderick Peattie has graphically noted (*Geography in Human Destiny,* pp. 94-96), how very different the history of both East and West might have become had there been no Isthmus of Suez! One strip of sand may have prevented a union of Greek and Indian cultures at a time when both were equally brilliant. To come nearer home, had the Aleutian Islands been continuous land, America might have been open to the medieval Mongols.

The teaching of geography, then, can be made to play its part even in the high schools to show the importance of physical factors in the development of those cultural forces which now impinge on the lives of all peoples. A background of comparative geography and its effects on cultural contrasts could lead to that greater understanding of diverse and little-known peoples which is required as a pre-condition of world peace. But have these possibilities of the subject been fully explored, even with all the postwar emphasis upon education for world peace and democratic understanding? Have social studies teachers given sufficient thought to the part that geography plays in relation to international peace, and to the role that the intelligent teaching of geography could play in helping students to see the essential interdependence of peoples and cultures? The experience of many educators would hardly be conducive to an affirmative answer.

A further advantage of the above approach to the subject is that it would easily lend itself to the "units of work" method which is currently very popular in many school systems. A union of geography with the civics and "social problems" approach could also be very fruitful. Excellent units of work could be organized around such topics as land utilization, conservation of natural resources, or population and migration. These are merely a few that come to mind in terms of the wider conception of geography. There is indeed a great wealth of subject matter to be exploited here. The fascinating story of man's life, the romance of far-away places, the often too little-known story of the student's immediate locality—all these contain great possibilities for making the social studies more meaningful and of increased interest to young people in a very real sense.

Geography is, in fact, "concrete anthropology," and as such has a strong claim to a central place in the social studies. A fuller recognition of its potentialities might lead to its being utilized in more and more school systems as a unifying discipline and integrating principle in the confused medley of subject matter that the social studies unfortunately all too frequently manifest.

Geography *in* Norwegian Schools

By GILBERT GEIS[1]
Drammensveien 472c (III)
Hovik (via Oslo) Norway

EDUCATION is essentially a process of communication and, as such, is susceptible to systematic analysis in terms of that branch of scientific investigation. In the following paper, the attempt is made to study geography in Norwegian schools by posing six questions that form the basis of communications research. These are: (1) who (2) communicates what (3) to whom (4) through what channels (5) for what effect, and (6) with what effect.[2]

For the purpose of descriptive continuity the arrangement of the questions is scrambled below. Some of the answers are readily apparent; others, to be satisfactorily disposed of, would require intensive investigation beyond the scope of the present paper.

1. *To whom is geographical education directed?*

The Norwegian primary school (*folkeskole*) is a seven-year course. From primary school, pupils proceed along diverse paths, depending upon their ultimate educational or vocational objective.[3] The direct line to the University passes through the five-year gymnasium (*gymnas*). Observations will be confined to these two: the primary school and the gymnasium.

In the former, the pupil is given instruction in geography throughout the seven years. At the secondary level, all pupils take geography classes for two hours a week during their first two years. After this stage, there is another selection process. Those who intend to do University-preparatory work sign up for the divsion leading to the *artium* degree. At this time, the pupils also indicate which of five study sequences they wish to pursue; primarily the choice is made between the science-mathematics sequence and the English-modern language sequence.

During their final three years at the gymnasium, modern language sequence pupils receive three hours of geography instruction in the third year and none thereafter. The science sequence pupils also have three hours of geography in their third year, and, in addition, receive another hour per week in their fifth year. Only final examinations are given; these are oral.

The following indicates the intensity of gymnasium work: In the last three years before *artium*, a Norwegian student goes to school 4,320 hours, compared to 3,420 hours for an American high school student. The difference of 1,080 hours equals 36 American

1 The writer wishes to express his appreciation to the Fulbright program and to the Social Science Research Council for fellowships which made possible his work in Norway.

2 The six questions are a combination of lists from Harold D. Lasswell, "The Structure and Function of Communications in Society," in Wilbur Schramm (ed.), *Mass Communications* (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1949), p. 102, and Frederick S. Dunn, *War and the Minds of Men* (New York: Harper, 1950), p. 30.

3 Education is compulsory only to the age of 14 in Norway.

school weeks or a whole year's study.[4] The Norwegian school year consists of forty weeks. There are six school days a week. Class periods are 45 minutes long.

After five years at the gymnasium, the student is eligible to take his *artium* examination. In 1951, 4,181 Norwegians passed this test—about one-tenth of the number that had begun their education twelve years before.

2. *What effect is aimed for?*

The Norwegian government, which controls all schools through its Ministry of Church and Education (*Kirke- og Undervisingsdepartementet*), is explicit in its answer to this question. In 1935, the Ministry issued a syllabus outlining the goals of geography education. In the primary schools, these are:

a. To instruct the pupils in the use of geographical tools such as maps and handbooks so that they can secure information and data which they will later require.

b. To develop the pupils' feeling for nature, and to help them to understand the relation between geographical conditions and human life.

c. To provide some knowledge of physical and mathematical geography —particularly that which forms the basis for the most important geographical phenomena, such as seasons, day and night, zones, climate, etc.

d. To provide some knowledge of other European countries—particularly the Scandinavian—and to present a survey of foreign regions, especially in regard to countries with whom Norway has most of its dealings.[5]

The syllabus also presents detailed suggestions on classroom techniques, minimum standards, and yearly curricula for the primary school system.

In the gymnasiums, the goals of geography education are tripartite:

a. To present a survey of the world as a human habitat, based on an understanding of inter-relationships among various geographical factors in nature, culture, etc.

b. To provide a more thorough knowledge of Norwegian topography, nature and industrial life, including map reading.

c. To provide science sequence students with additional knowledge of mathematical geography.[6]

3. *What is the effective result of geography education?*

This is the most difficult of the six questions, offering the least possibility for objective determination. Professor Haugen provides a preliminary hypothesis, noting that "since no instruction is given in general geography during the last two years, it seems probable that the geography taught is not of college grade. Experience suggests, however, that Norwegians are more conscious of geography than most Americans, and Norwegian students planning to specialize in geography could probably absolve some of the elementary work by examination."[7]

An attempt was made in the present study to secure a crude measurement of geographical knowledge among Nor-

4 Einar Haugen, *A Study of the Norwegian University Entrance Examination or "Artium" Degree with Notes on the University of Wisconsin Policy for Foreign Students.* 3rd. rev. ed. (Madison, Wisc., 1951), p. 11.

5 *Normalplan for Byfolkeskolen.* 2nd. ed. (Oslo: H. Aschehoug, 1948), p. 99.

6 *Den Hogre Almenskolen Undervisnings Planer* (Oslo: Broggers, 1950), pp. 80-81.

7 Haugen, *A Study of the Norwegian University Entrance Examination*, p. 14.

wegian gymnasium students. Last year, the New York *Times* reported on a nationwide geography test administered to a sample of 4,752 college students—2,308 upperclassmen and 2,444 freshmen. The test consisted of 32 questions, many of them with numerous subdivisions. The results, according to the *Times'* education editor, showed that "American college students know shockingly little about the geography of this country. They know even less about the world. American or world geography is a forgotten subject in our institutions of higher learning."[8]

The present study employed an abridged version of the *Times'* test, eliminating many questions that applied primarily to the American scene. The test was given to 225 fifth-year gymnasium students in Oslo. This group constitutes about one-fourth of the Oslo fifth-year gymnasium registration and about one-twentieth of the same classification in the entire country. The test was administered in five different Oslo schools.[9] The pupils appear to be *roughly* equivalent to American college freshmen in age, selectivity, and socio-economic characteristics. The test results, comparing the scores of the American college freshmen, and the Oslo fifth-year gymnasium students, appear below:

GEOGRAPHY TEST SCORES: U.S.A. AND OSLO

Question and answer	Percent correct U.S.A.	Oslo
1. List and give the approximate population of the five largest cities in the United States. (New York—7.8 million; Chicago—3.6 million; Los Angeles, Philadelphia—both 2 million; Detroit—1.8 million).	....	
2. In the ocean there are both warm and cold currents. In which general direction do the cold currents flow? (Toward the Equator)	09.3	28.9
3. How large, approximately, is:		
1. the world's population? (2.3 billion)	22.3	
2. population of the Soviet Union? (200 million)	15.9	
3. population of Great Britain? (50 million)	08.7	
4. population of Brazil? (50 million)	07.0	
5. population of Canada? (13½ million)	01.9	
4. In what countries are the following cities?		
1. Belgrade (Yugoslavia)	34.1	37.3
2. Lisbon (Portugal)	54.6	71.1
3. Dublin (Ireland or Eire)	78.2	72.4
4. Budapest (Hungary)	57.6	61.3
5. Nanking (China)	92.0	84.9
6. Manila (Philippines)	80.7	30.2
7. Munich (Germany)	78.8	92.0
8. Lima (Peru)	74.2	40.0
9. Vladivostok (U.S.S.R.)	83.1	88.4
10. Capetown (Union of South Africa)	68.2	69.8
5. Which three European countries have colonies in the Caribbean area? (France, Great Britain, Netherlands).	39.0	26.7
6. Name the South American republics. (Columbia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, Brazil, Venezuela)	07.8	04.4
7. Name the two countries in the Americas that are larger than the United States in area. (Canada, Brazil).	62.9	53.3
8. Name the countries that border Yugoslavia. (Albania, Greece, Bulgaria, Rumania, Hungary, Austria, Italy, Free City of Trieste).	....	....

8 Benjamin Fine in the New York *Times*, June 11, 1951.

9 The following persons were particularly helpful in faciliating the testing process: Aars og Voss Skole, Kristian Norby and Hans Rugstad; Fagerborg Skole, Mai Millberg and William Nygaard; Berg Skole, Ellef Ellefsen; Foss Skole, Arnulf Nygaard; Ris Skole, Ingvald Marm and Inger Kathrine-Jensen.

9.	The following names are associated with one definite product. Name the product.		
	1. Brazil (Coffee)	75.4	85.3
	2. Ruhr (Steel or iron)	42.4	60.9
	3. Honduras-Panama (Bananas)	20.1	06.7
	4. Gold-Coast-Ecuador (Cacao)	03.8	11.6
	5. Cuba (Sugar)	63.1	22.2
	6. Malaya-Bolivia (Tin)	24.2	06.7
10.	In what countries are the following rivers?		
	1. Seine (France)	71.0	91.1
	2. Amazon (Brazil)	76.3	61.8
	3. Nile (Egypt—also Anglo-Egyptian Sudan or Uganda)	86.7	93.8
	4. Ob (U.S.S.R.)	28.6	67.6
	5. Indus (Pakistan)	01.1	05.3
11.	What country in the Southern Hemisphere competes with Canada and the United States in export of wheat? (Argentina)	59.1	29.8

These results should be interpreted with considerable caution and used as the basis only for very general conclusions. Several obvious biasing factors should be noted:

a. Biases which include the whole range of test sophistication, motivation, etc. Simultaneously, biases associated with knowledge tests as criteria of curriculum success (i.g., geography knowledge does not represent only the end product of classroom instruction in the subject, but is the result of a combination of many factors, including newspaper reading habits, home environment, travel, etc.)

b. Norwegian students are drilled intensely in the geography of their own country; this instruction is nowhere reflected in the test. American students, perhaps, counter-balance this with superior knowledge of their home states' geography.

c. The American sample was presumably drawn on a nationwide basis, embracing students with secondary preparation in both rural and urban areas. Since urban school systems are generally superior to rural school systems, the high urban ratio in the Oslo sample would seem to favor a certain upgrading in its scores.

What conclusions may safely be drawn from the test?: It appears reasonable to say that Oslo students display a very slight superiority in geography knowledge. The results, however, are quite eratic. Some deviations can be logically explained in terms of location (thus, the Oslo group was better informed on questions relating to the Soviet Union, such as the location of Vladivostok and the Ob), and others can be explained in terms of history (thus, the Americans show a very high superiority in information about the location of Manila). Other, more neutral areas, would appear to represent comparatively accurate measures of geographical information among the two groups.

Beyond these broad interpretations, the reader must venture alone, setting up his own criteria of validity for any conclusions or hypotheses that he may care to draw.

4. *Who communicates geographical knowledge in the schools?*

The Norwegian high school teacher (*lektor*) is generally better prepared academically than his American counterpart. The *lektor* first takes a degree at the University. This stage is usually equated with an American master's degree; some authorities consider it equal to a master's plus a year of Ph.D. work. Following his Uni-

versity work, the prospective *lektor* attends the Institute of Education (*Det Pedagogiske Seminar*) for five months. Here he receives instruction, often by practicing teachers, in the standard teacher-training curriculum —principles of education, educational history, etc.

Norwegian *lektors* do not specialize in single subjects in the same manner as their American counterparts. Joan Clegg reports that nowhere in Norway is there a *lektor* devoting full time to geography. She notes: "The advantages of each teacher taking several subjects are that he is better acquainted with his pupils and more easily able to correlate subjects. After many discussions with students, teachers and lecturers, it is obvious that this lack of specialization is not generally felt to be a handicap; the usual comment is that a teacher could not possibly give twenty-four hour lessons a week in one subject, he would be bored to death!"[10]

5. *Through what channels is geography taught?*

This is perhaps the most self-explanatory of the six communications questions. Geography knowledge is certainly absorbed from sources other than the school system. Formal instruction in the schools, however, which is pertinent here, is carried on through the teachers and by means of textbooks and auxiliary aids. The final sections will consider these textbooks as communication agents.

6. *What is communicated in geography education?*

Brief samples from the three texts authorized for use in the gymnasiums are presented below. The quotations are confined to material on the United States, and focus on the more nebulous aspects of geography (in contrast to climate, trade, etc.) that are usually grouped under the general heading of "social conditions."

The Haffner-Knudsen text, for instance, notes:

> The American people are blended together from immigrants of all European countries, particularly England. There are about 800,000 (first and second generation) persons of Norwegian stock living there. Culturally, the United States belongs among the leading nations. Excellent schools, universities, and research institutions are found spread over the entire country. In regard to social initiative, most European states are further advanced. A difficult social problem is the *Negro question*. A deeply-rooted repugnance among the white population means that Negroes still must behave as slaves. In the southern states, a Negro cannot stay at the same hotel as whites, not go in the same restaurant, not travel on the same bus or train. The Indians are not disdained in the same manner as the Negroes.
>
> . . . The United States has no state church. Large segments of the population belong to congregations which pay the ministers themselves. Often these church groups have their own schools, universities, hospitals, etc.
>
> America is known for its efficiency and aggressiveness in business affairs. No other country has been able to offer the self-made man such opportunities as the States, where individuality and energetic activity have been able to produce great results.[11]

The Orheim-Refsdal text also dwells at length on the Negro question. In addition, it comments:

> The U.S.A. has experienced a rapid development in the last 150 years. The country is extremely richly-endowed ("God's own country") and Americans have understood how to take advantage of these riches. . . . The U.S.A. is the most self-sufficient nation in the world, with a living standard far higher than in any other country. Many Americans think,

10 Joan M. Clegg, "The Teaching of Geography in Norwegian Grammar Schools," *Geography* (British), XXXV (1950), p. 214.

11 Einar Haffner and Einar Knudsen, *Geografi for Den Hogre Skolen*. 2nd. ed. (Olso: N. W. Damm, 1942), vol. I, pp. 118-119.

therefore, that the country should go its own way, together with the other American states, and not concern itself with what goes on in other parts of the world. (Monroe doctrine).

The rationalization which the U.S.A. has carried through in production has, in one respect, gone too fast. The land can produce much more than can be sold or consumed. At the same time that the land is so rich, there has been much unemployment among industrial workers and farmers. This has carried with it more misery than necessary, for the U.S.A. does not have a regular program to take care of the unemployed, the sick and the aged. But the government is now trying to both regulate production and divide the land's riches in a better manner. (The New Deal).

Industry in the U.S.A. supports its own scientific research and provides enormous sums for this work. Thanks to this "private initiative" the U.S.A. during the last years have become the leading country in physical science research.[12]

Finally, the Ellefsen-Schibsted-Somme text finds the following to be significant of the United States:

American universities and research institutes are among the finest in the world. They have contributed greatly to the country's tremendous progress, particularly in material culture.

The U.S.A. is a multi-millionaire's country. To a greater extent than any other country, the U.S.A. has been the country where energetic and ambitious persons have been able to fight their way forward to positions of prosperity of power. There is a greater division between the poor and the rich there than in Norway. The most skilled and highly-organized industrial workers earn so much that they generally have their own cars, but millions of people live on starvation wages—particularly Negroes and immigrants from South and East Europe.[13]

---

12 Odd Orheim and Anfinn Refsdal, *Geografi for Realskolen og det 5-Arige Gymnasium* (Olso: H. Aschehoug, 1945), vol. I, 99.

13 Ellef Ellefsen, Stein Schibsted and Axel Somme, *Geografi for Den Hogre Skolen* (Olso: J. W. Cappelen, 1946), vol. I, p. 118.

MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE
Summer
LANGUAGE SCHOOLS
MIDDLEBURY, VERMONT
JUNE 27 • AUGUST 14

FRENCH • GERMAN • ITALIAN
RUSSIAN • SPANISH

Acquire a real mastery of a foreign language both spoken and written. Obtain a thorough understanding of the foreign country's institutions, literature and culture. Do this through the famous method of segregation and concentration pioneered and maintained for 36 years by Middlebury College. Effective teacher training, or preparation for international service. Graduate courses taught by native teachers with foreign and American university experience.

Pledge yourself to use *no English* during seven week course. Earn a Master's degree or a Doctorate, while enjoying the beauty of the Champlain valley in the foothills of the Green Mountains.

For complete bulletin and other information write
OFFICE OF SUMMER SCHOOLS
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE
MIDDLEBURY 5, VERMONT

DEPARTMENT OF BOOK REVIEWS

WILLIAM P. SEARS, Jr., *Book Review Editor*
School of Education, New York University

Fundamentals of Public School Administration. Third Edition. By Ward G. Reeder. New York. The Macmillan Company, 1951. pp. xv + 756. $5.00.

This is the third edition of a well-known text for courses in Public School Administration which has enjoyed wide use during the past two decades. The long period of usefulness of this text is due, in part, to the realistic and practical manner in which it covers every phase of the organization and administration of local school systems. The author, who is Professor of Education at the Ohio State University, gives up-to-date information on school budgets, building sites and plans, school plant operation and repair, school equipment, selection and supervision of personnel, school health and medical services, program and curriculum planning, school attendance, and public relations. The 1951 edition contains much new information on administrative problems involving the classroom teacher such as teachers' salaries and pensions, evaluation of teaching efficiency, pupil personnel, and the curriculum. That this third revision of *Fundamentals of Public School Administration* by Ward G. Reeder will prove useful as a text in introductory courses in School Administration is the prediction of the reviewer. Furthermore, professionally-minded administrators and teachers in service as well as school board or committee members will find this revision well worth including on their 1952 reading list. — DONALD W. MILLER, President and Professor of Education, Curry College.

Geography of Latin America. By Fred A. Carlson. New York. Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1952. $6.75.

South America, Central America, Mexico, and the West Indies are the subjects of this comprehensive and thorough text in geography which has now reached its third edition. The treatment of each country includes a brief summary of general characteristics, a description and interpretation of the natural-cultural regions, and a discussion of the geography in relation to domestic and foreign affairs. The author stresses the fact that his primary endeavor has been to establish a better understanding and appreciation of the countries of Latin America through the enumeration and interpretation of nature's conditions that have retarded or promoted their progress. Much sound and up-to-date factual material is presented and the need for more information where none exists is pointed out. An eminently useful text for its field, and a most attractively written book. — WILLIAM P. SEARS.

America's Colonial Experiment. By Julian W. Pratt. New York. Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1950. xi and 460 pages. $4.50.

America's Colonial Experiment tells the story of the imperialism of the United States and traces its motives, methods, and achievements and pictures the present status of our territories beyond continental borders. This book is not a study of European experiments in the colonization of these shores but rather a history our own attempts at developing possessions beyond the limits of the forty-eight states. Within the compass of this single volume are facts of history involving the acquisition of the island possessions beginning with the Spanish-American War of 1898, the establishment and subsequent surrender of protectorates in the Caribbean, the government of the territories or island outposts of Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Guam, and American Samoa. There is much of the importance of the Panama Canal and on the quest for security that has gripped us since the termination of World War Two.

— WILLIAM P. SEARS

Do you need help on sex guidance?

This book is planned to help every school to deal with its own particular problems of sex education—to decide *whether* to provide sex education, and if so, how, where, and to what extent. There are 36 pages and 13 tables of facts on the sex activities, information, and attitudes of young people, and succeeding chapters abound in more specialized data. And there are 44 pages of up-to-date bibliographies and lists of teaching aids and professional materials in sex education.

A special value of this book is that it fits sex education into the "life adjustment" and "family life education" programs now being stressed. Read the table of contents below and order a copy for 10-day free examination today!

SEX EDUCATION AS HUMAN RELATIONS

A Guidebook on Content and Methods

By LESTER A. KIRKENDALL

Associate Professor of Family Life Education
School of Home Economics, Oregon State College

FORMERLY: Director of the Association for Family Living, Chicago, Ill. . . . Senior Specialist in Health Education, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C. . . . Head of Division of Guidance, College of Education, University of Oklahoma . . . Chairman of National Committee on Education for Marriage and Family Life in the Schools of the National Council on Family Relations.

Foreword by Robert J. Havighurst, Professor of Education, University of Chicago

CONTENTS

Part I. Evidence of Need and Results

1. A Concept of Sex
2. Evidence of the Need for Sex Education
3. The Evidence Mounts
4. Sex Education is Practicable

Part II. Philosophy and Objectives

5. The Scope of Sex Education
6. The Basic Principles of Sex Education
7. Objectives in Sex Education for the Pre-adolescent
8. Objectives in Sex Education for Adolescent and Older Youth

Part III. Institutional Relationships

9. The School in Sex Education
10. The Home in Sex Education
11. The Church in Sex Education
12. Community Resources in Sex Education

Part IV. Methods in Sex Education

13. Approaches to Sex Education
14. Building Support for the Program
15. Teacher Qualifications, Preparation, and Education
16. Launching the Program
17. Methods of Initiating and Directing Class Discussion
18. Techniques and Procedures of Individual Counseling
19. Appraising a Program of Sex Education

Part V. Content and Materials in Sex Education

20. The Contribution of the Elementary School
21. The Contribution of the High-School Subjects
22. Illustrations of Integrative Procedure
23. Courses in Marriage and Family Relations
24. The College and Sex Education
25. Teaching Aids in Sex Education

Net prof. price $3.60

INOR PUBLISHING CO., 207 Fourth Avenue New York 3

THE GRACE M. ABBOTT TEACHERS' AGENCY

GRACE M. ABBOTT, Manager

120 BOYLSTON STREET, BOSTON 16, MASS.

MEMBER NATIONAL ASSOCIATION TEACHERS' AGENCIES

Schermerhorn Teachers' Agency

Established 1855 — *E. E. MULFORD, Prop.*

366 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK CITY — BETWEEN 34th AND 35th STREETS

BRANCH OFFICE; 1836 EUCLID AVENUE, CLEVELAND, OHIO

MEMBER NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS' AGENCIES

A superior agency for superior people. We register only reliable candidates. Services free to school officials.

BRYANT Teachers Bureau

Member—N. A. T. A.

711-718 WITHERSPOON BLDG. PHILADELPHIA 7, PA.

M. A. Bryant
Thos. B. E. Bryant
W. D. Greulich
PEnnypacker 5-1223

33rd year of Placement Service

CONSULTANTS TO SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

Quality Teachers and Positions Listed Throughout the Year

FROM NEW YORK PHILADELPHIA SUBURBAN AREAS TO DISTANT POINTS

THE SPRINGFIELD TEACHERS' AGENCY

ROBERT S. MACDOWALL, B. S. in Ed., M. Ed. Manager

"The Right Teacher for the Right Place"

New England Coverage

1562 MAIN STREET — SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

TEACHERS NEEDED—Elementary—Secondary—College. We have officially listed, hundreds of splendid positions. Why not investigate these through us? Our many years of experience in placing teachers—a quarter of a century under the same management—gives you expert guidance—so important in seeking a position. Write immediately.

GREAT AMERICAN TEACHERS AGENCY

Established 1880 — Successor to THE PENN EDUCATIONAL BUREAU — 71st Year

205 NORTH SEVENTH STREET, ALLENTOWN, PENNA.

Member National Association of Teachers' Agencies

COLLEGE TEACHERS AND SCHOOL EXECUTIVES

We Need You For The Better Paying Positions.

For a Better Salary and a More Desirable Position Enroll with the R. M. T. A.

WRITE US TODAY FOR INFORMATION

ESTABLISHED 1906

ROCKY MT TEACHERS' AGENCY

410 U. S. NATL. BANK BLDG. DENVER, COLO.

UNEXCELLED SERVICE

LARGEST, MOST WIDELY PATRONIZED TEACHERS' AGENCY IN THE WEST